Vol. 6

THE SECOND
GREAT WAR

Vol. 6



GEN. THE HON. SIR HAROLD ALEXANDER, G.C.B., D.S.O.

Portrait by Capt. Neville Lewis, exhibited at the National Portrait Gallery, London, Summer 1943.
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Frontis.

THE SECOND GREAT WAR

A Standard History

Edited by

SIR JOHN HAMMERTON

Editor of The Great War, World War 1914–18, Europe's Fight for Freedom, etc

Military Editor

Maj.-Gen. SIR CHARLES GWYNN, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

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CONTENTS OF VOLUME SIX

LIST OF CHAPTERS

HISTORIC DOCUMENTS

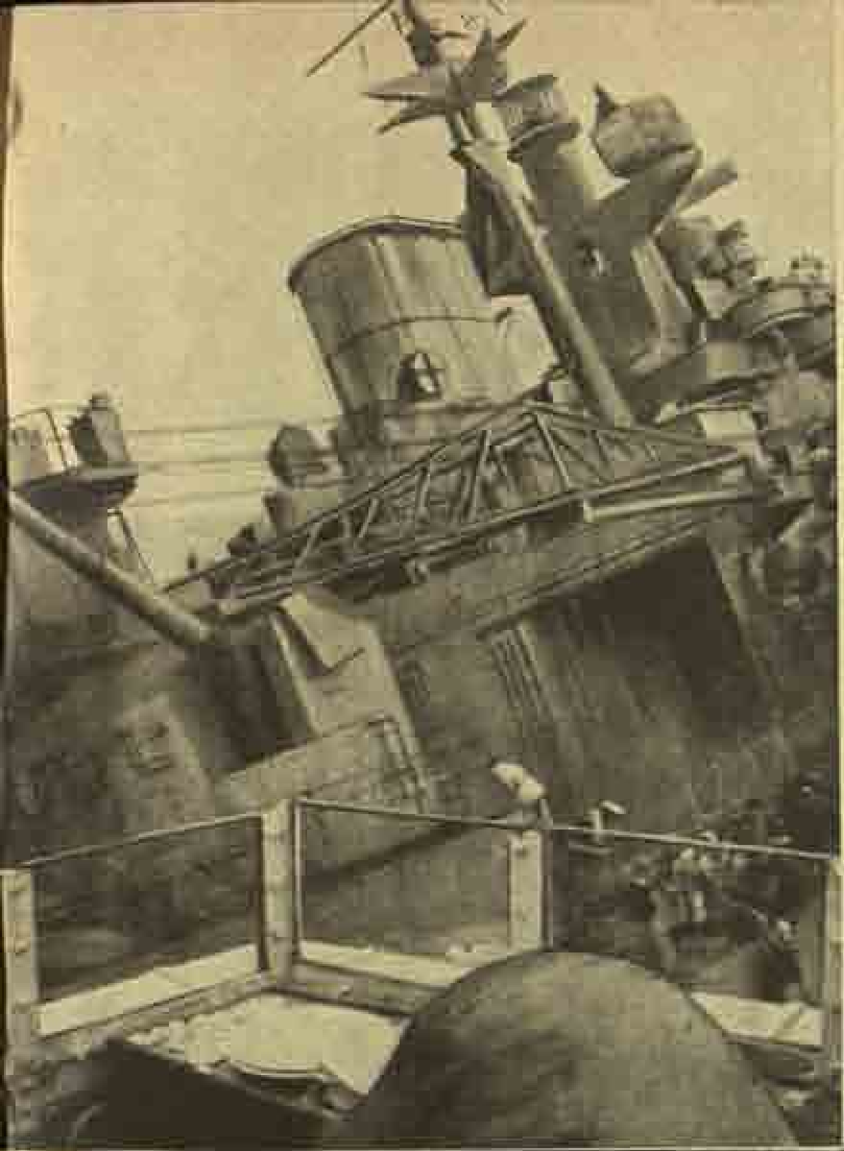
(The number of the page on which each document appears is given in brackets)

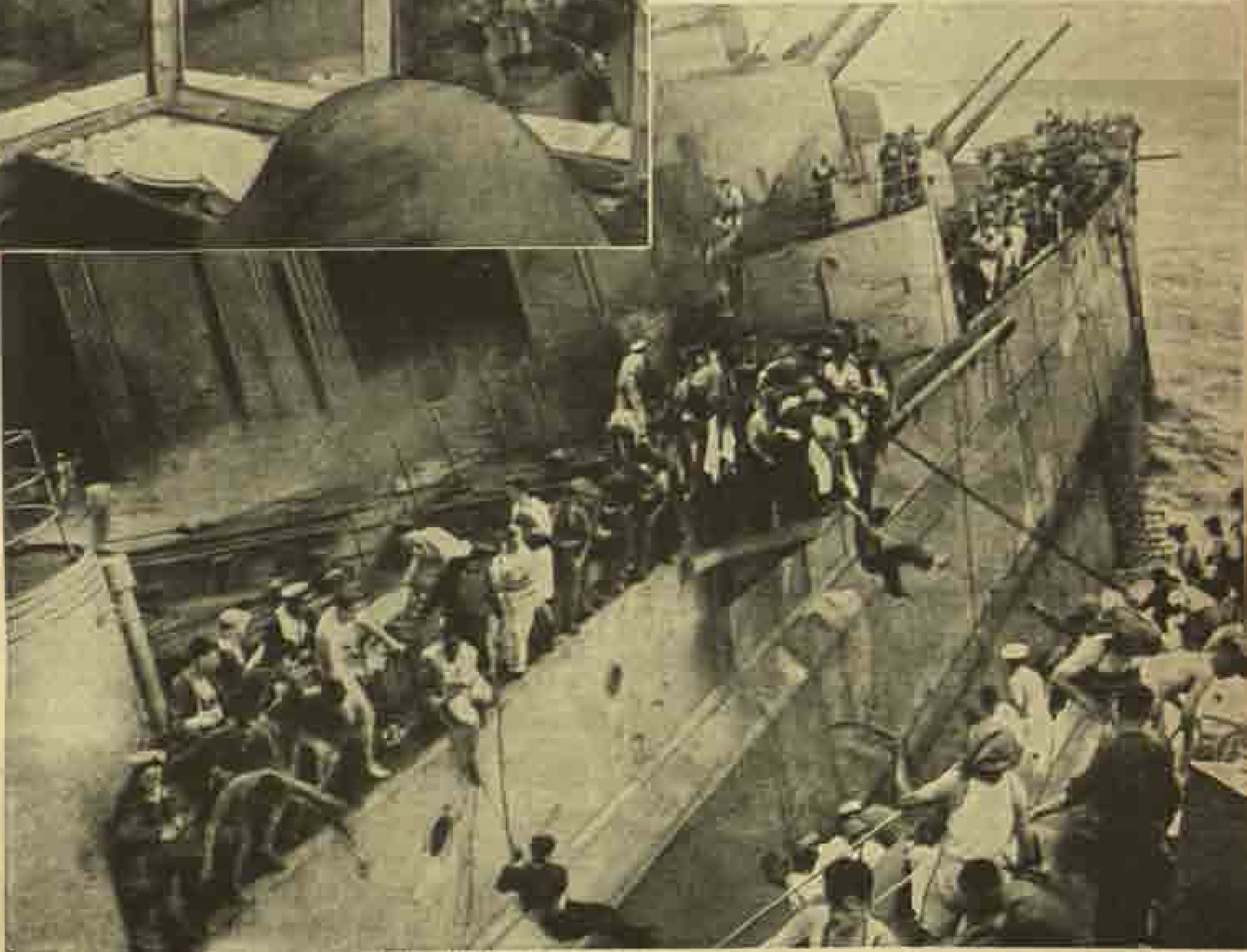
DIARY OF THE WAR, 1942

MAPS AND PLANS

SPECIAL PLATES IN COLOUR

CHAPTERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SUBJECT—*Vols.* 1 *to* 6





BLOW THAT SHOCKED THE EMPIRE

On December 2, 1941, the battleship 'Prince of Wales' with other units of the Eastern Fleet arrived at Singapore (see illus., p. 1906), whence 'The Times' correspondent cabled that the effect on Japanese policy would be eagerly watched. That policy was made clear on the 7th, when Japan attacked Hawaii, the Philippines, Hongkong, Siam and Malaya. On the 8th Rear-Admiral Sir Tom Phillips (C.-in-C. Eastern Fleet) took out the 'Prince of Wales' and the battle-cruiser 'Repulse' to intercept Japanese transports moving towards the Kra Isthmus. After leaving he learnt that no fighter escort would be available, but cloudy weather offered some concealment. When later the weather cleared, and he had been sighted by enemy aircraft, Sir Tom Phillips turned back. Receiving a report of enemy landings at Kuantan, he sent off his own planes to investigate; the result was negative, and he told his aircraft to return to Singapore. Then it was that our warships were attacked by Japanese bombers and torpedo-planes: H.M.S. 'Repulse,' after repeated hits, sank at 12.30 p.m. on December 10 (local time); the 'Prince of Wales' went down about an hour after. These photographs show the last moments of the latter vessel as, listing heavily, she is abandoned by her complement. Of 2,925 in the two warships all but 595 were saved. Sir Tom Phillips perished, and Captain J. G. Leach, of the 'Prince of Wales.' Captain W. G. Tennant, of the 'Repulse,' was rescued.

Photos, Associated Press 20



LANCASTER HEAVY BOMBER SAFELY HOME AFTER A RAID

The Avro Lancaster four-engined heavy bomber was first reported in action on the occasion of the Augsburg raid of April 17, 1942, when twelve flew across Germany in daylight at a height of 25-30 feet to bomb the target. The bomber weighs 60,000 lb., has a speed of about 300 m.p.h., and has a range of about 3,000 miles. The armament is ten Browning .303 machine-guns in four turrets. Normally the crew numbers six.

Photo: Barratts

WAR COMES CLOSER TO AUSTRALIA: AFTER THE JAPANESE ONSLAUGHT

Pungent Criticisms—Curtin's 'Look to America' Message—Allied S.W. Pacific Command—Lack of Preparedness—Call for Closer Collaboration with Britain—Pacific War Council—Mr. Casey Goes to Cairo—Man-power Problems—Reorganization of the Armed Forces—After the Fall of Singapore—First Japanese Bombings of Australia—Invasion of New Guinea—Allied Bombers Hit Back—Battle of the Coral Sea—Position at end of June 1942

Feeling in the Dominion after six months of war with Japan might well be gauged by the views expressed by Sir Keith Murdoch, first Director-General of Australia's Ministry of Information and her foremost newspaper proprietor. In the British House of Commons on June 4, 1942, Mr. Churchill was asked by a Member whether the decision to accept battle in the island of Singapore was a military or a political decision, and, if the former, whether General Wavell recommended it. Mr. Attlee, Secretary of State for the Dominions, replied that the decision was taken on military grounds and was the unanimous decision of His Majesty's Government, their military advisers and the commanders on the spot. The further question was then asked: "Is the Minister aware that Sir Keith Murdoch has reported that he had every sympathy with General Wavell, and had reason to believe that it was a political decision, not a military one? Is that absolutely untrue? Many people believe that General Wavell was overruled." Mr. Attlee said: "I am not prepared to check up on statements made by individuals."

The opinion of Sir Keith Murdoch could not be dismissed so summarily, for it represented that of at least a large proportion of well-informed Australians.

Australia Anticipated Invasion

Whether the Secretary of State was wise in not "checking up" on statements made by such men is, perhaps, a matter of opinion. Had he investigated, he would have found that Australia was bitterly disappointed with the outcome of the battles for Singapore and Java, and was, in fact, awaiting with determination, but with also a great deal of well-founded apprehension, a Japanese assault on the Australian mainland.

In the Daily Mail of February 19, 1942, Sir Keith Murdoch, in an article cabled from Melbourne, said:

"The disasters in our power in the East are not so easily explainable as Mr. Churchill says. They are not merely the flowing of Japanese arms through the broken dam. There were grave miscalculations and misconceptions by London Service leaders. If these had not occurred, and the quality of our implements had been of the type required, we would still be in Malaya."

On March 16, in the same newspaper, Sir Keith Murdoch stated:

"We in Australia are expecting a Japanese assault. Whether it will be an attack on bases like Wyndham, Darwin, Moresby, and Townsville; whether it will be a descent upon the south-west, or whether it will be a mass movement against the great eastern block we do not know. But we are working day and night in preparation for the lot."



WAR AT AUSTRALIA'S DOOR

By March 1942, when posters such as this were issued to stimulate the war effort, Australia had come to a full realization of her peril, with the enemy fast consolidating himself in the island bulwark whence he could strike at the Dominion.

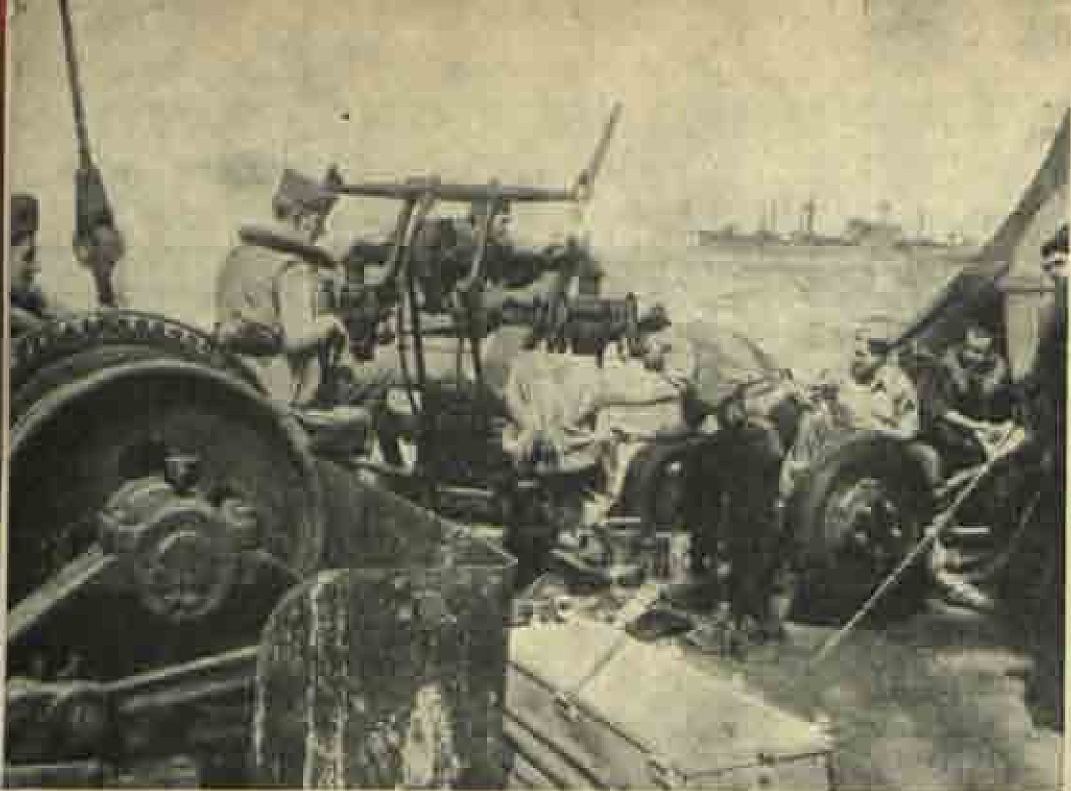
Actually, as later events proved and as Government spokesmen were to confirm, this was a fair enough statement of the position. Against this kind of background Australia put her shoulder to the wheel in an hour of acute crisis. Probably future historians will say it was the supreme hour of her crisis, because Australia will never be weaker than she was between December 7, 1941, when Japan went to war, and June 30, 1942. She was not wholly unprepared. She had been at war with Germany and Italy from the outset. But, like America, she was unprepared for both the type and the weight of Japan's offensive. Her home defences were of the slenderest. Her Navy was working for Britain; she had practically no home-based aircraft, and the pick of her fighting men were in the Middle East. Industrially she was extending, but she was a long, long way from her peak, and almost everything her factories turned out was exported immediately.

Still, she was not doing all she could, by any means, to meet man-power requirements. Plans adequate to meet them were not evolved. Yet

Man-power Problems

it was obvious to the Government's critics, both at home and abroad, that certain measures would have to be carried through with a ruthlessness and speed which might arouse considerable opposition. Included in these measures were rationalization of the manufacturing industry and the reconstruction of the distribution, commerce, and finance industries. American critics, listening to Australia asking America and Britain for fresh forces to strengthen the Allied position in the Pacific and, therefore, more securely to protect Australia, hinted that the more Australia could show she was making a maximum contribution herself, the greater would be her chance of getting increased assistance.

All the same, it was because she was to a certain extent self-reliant in the industrial sense that Australia (and through her New Zealand) did not feel as hopeless as she would have felt had she succumbed in the years before 1939 to the arguments of those economic theorists who urged that Australia, like New Zealand, should concentrate on primary rather than on secondary industries. No one of course can say now it was a bad thing that Australia disobeyed such economic theories and ventured to drown the bleat of her 114,000,000 sheep in the roar of blast furnaces, the hum of millions of factory









BUILDING UP AN AMERICAN STRIKING FORCE IN AUSTRALIA

When General Douglas MacArthur reached Australia (March 17, 1942) American transports had been for some weeks crossing the Pacific, and quantities of arms and equipment continued to come in under Lease-Lend. Top, left, anti-aircraft crew on a U.S. transport which reached Australia in mid-March; top, right, U.S. troops disembarking. Left, unsealing medium and light tanks after unloading. Above, American and Australian officers examine a newly delivered B-17 (Flying Fortress) bomber.

Photos, Planet News, Keystone, Associated Press



AUSTRALIA REPRESENTED IN BRITISH WAR CABINET

Sir Earle Page (second from left) was Australia's representative up till May 1942, when he was succeeded by Mr. S. M. Bruce. With him in London were Australia's Defence Representatives: left, Colonel A. Wardell, Military Liaison Officer; Major P. E. Coleman, Defence Adviser to Sir Earle Page (standing); Admiral Sir Ragnar Colvin; and Wing-Commander E. G. Knox-Knight (extreme right).
Photo, Topical Press

machine wheels, the clang of hammers on steel plates, the slap and clack of numberless production belts. (And no one of course can ignore the enormous post-war problems this rapid industrialization will create.)

These are the sort of facts which must be borne in mind when one considers the statement of Australia's Prime Minister, Mr. Curtin (who is leader of the Labour Party), that the Dominion should look to America. It was made on December 27, 1941, in the course of a New Year's message to the Australian people on the defence of the Pacific. More than any other statement this caused the keenest controversy in Australia and abroad: it was misunderstood in America and in Britain as much as in Australia. Some thought it meant that Australia's Government was contemplating a break-away from the Empire. Perhaps this interpretation was easy enough for the majority of people, because they did not know the paucity of Australia's defences. Consequently, they could not know that Mr. Curtin was talking purely from the standpoint of defence. What he meant was that for her immediate salvation Australia would have to look to America, since Britain had her hands full.

'Australia Looks to America'

This meaning was understood by the United Kingdom and United States Governments, both later implying official recognition of it. On January 3, 1942, by a joint announcement by President Roosevelt and Mr Churchill, a unified command of the south-west Pacific area was set up under General Wavell with Major-General Brett (U.S.) as Deputy, and General Pownall as Chief of Staff. Admiral Hart (U.S.) was to be C.-in-C. naval forces in the same area; General Chiang Kai-shek was to be C.-in-C. land and air forces in the Chinese area (including Indo-China and Siam). And on March 17 General MacArthur arrived in Australia, by air, to take up the Allied Command, as well as direction of the final struggle in the Philippines. Major-General Brett was appointed Deputy to MacArthur, and head of the U.S. Air Force.

A panoramic survey of the first six months of war in the Pacific falls into two sections. The first deals with reactions on the home front; the second with engagements with the enemy. Undoubtedly the first reaction was one of dismay. Australia did not, any more than America, believe Japan capable of such a monstrous, unforgettable act of treachery as she perpetrated at Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, when in Washington Japan's Ambassador and her special envoy were pretending to seek a solution to the diplomatic deadlock, but were actually buying time with hypocrisy and falsehoods to enable Japan's war lords to move forces secretly to battle stations. A few days before the blow fell Australia's Minister to Tokyo, Sir John Latham, on a visit to the Commonwealth from Tokyo, stated publicly that he did not fear war in the Pacific, and he saw no need to imagine it would come.

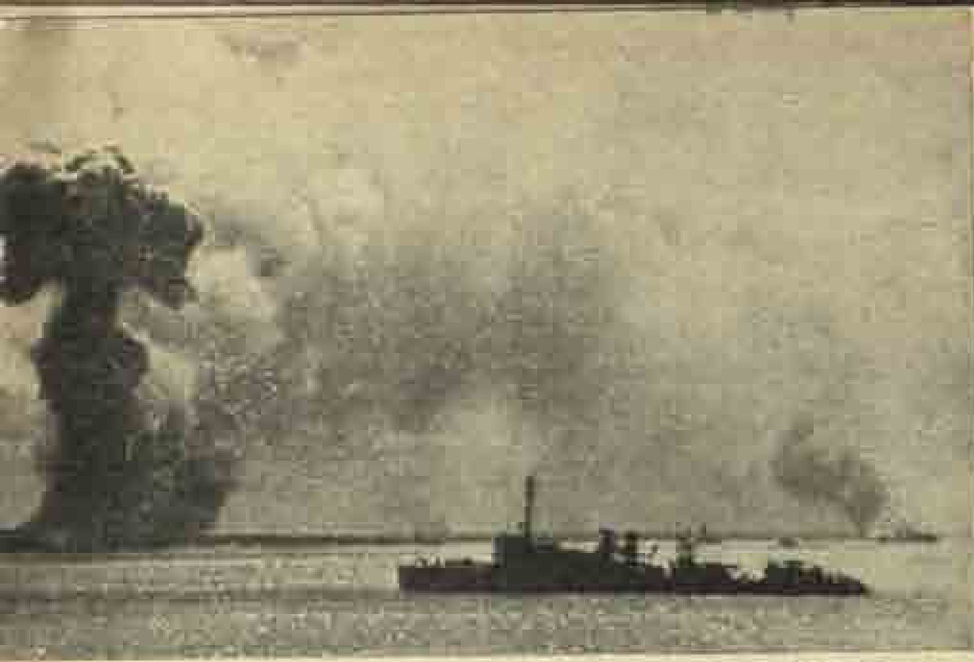
Six Months of the Pacific War

The chief concern, of course, was the almost entire lack of preparedness for



GENERAL MACARTHUR CONFERS WITH MR. CURTIN

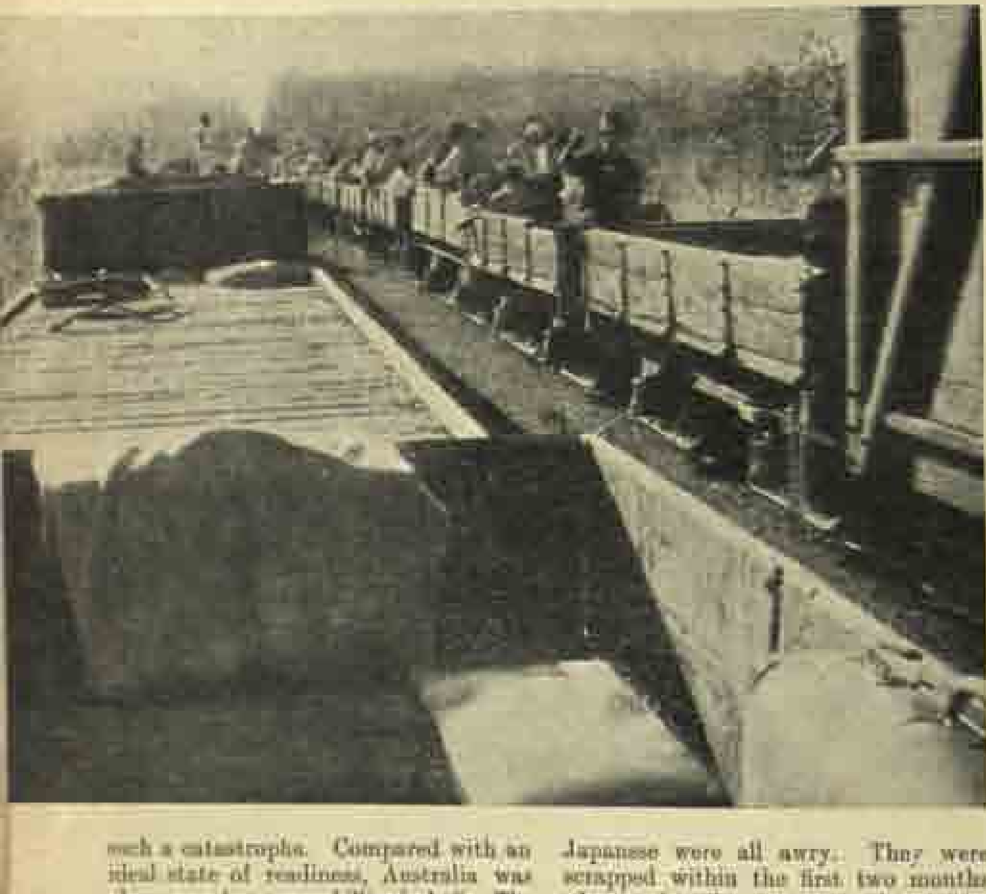
Appointed Allied Commander in the S.W. Pacific, General Douglas MacArthur flew from the Philippines and reached Australia on March 17, 1942. Here (left) he is having his first consultation with the Australian Premier, Mr. J. Curtin, at Canberra shortly after.
Photo, Sport & General



PORT DARWIN—FIRST TARGET FOR JAPANESE BOMBERS

The first bombs to fall on Australia were dropped on Port Darwin on February 19, 1942. Top photograph shows (left) a merchant ship exploding after a bomb hit; right background, a hospital ship afire. In foreground is an American destroyer. Considerable damage was done to harbour installations by this surprise raid. Below, evacuation of civilians after the raid

Photos, Wide World; Keystone



such a catastrophe. Compared with an ideal state of readiness, Australia was almost as bare as a billiards ball. The reason mainly was her generosity in meeting the demands on her man-power, industry and Services made by the war raging in the Northern hemisphere. Another reason was that the ideas which London, Washington and Canberra had in December about the intelligence and efficiency of the Japanese were all awry. They were scrapped within the first two months of war; but the task of replacing them with new ideas was not easy. Politically it was a job which caused much heart-burning. Coordination of the closest type was recognized as a prime essential. How best to achieve this? Sir Earle Page, leader of the Australian Country Party and a member of the Australian War Cabinet, came to London; following consultation with Whitehall, he concluded that the best means of achieving success was by "common planning before consultation at the Ministerial level."

Although the way in which Sir Earle Page's conclusion was expressed was not universally accepted, the core of what he said was approved. In The Times of January 21 the Rt. Hon. R. G. Menzies, asking whether we could have Empire control of an Empire war, said: "The logical case for an Empire Cabinet of some sort is complete, yet remains the most complex of problems." He was satisfied that a permanent Australian representative on the British War Cabinet would by no means produce that perfect result at which Australians were aiming. At the same time there would be great positive advantages arising out of his presence in the British War Cabinet.

Pacific War Council

Various State Premiers urged closer collaboration; the Press advocated it in various forms, ranging from an Imperial War Council, or Conference, to a Pacific War Council. Finally, the latter was set up in Washington—on March 30—with a counterpart in London. (See Chapter 215). On the Pacific Council in Washington, Australia and New Zealand are represented by Ministers—New Zealand by the Rt. Hon. Walter Nash, and Australia by Sir Owen Dixon. Mr. R. G. Casey, Britain's Minister of State in Cairo, was until March 19, 1942 Australian Minister in Washington. His acceptance of the position, and membership of the British War Cabinet, displeased Mr. Curtin and a large section of the Australian people because at that particular time it was felt his services to Australia were almost indispensable.

Mr. Curtin's disapproval of the appointment resulted in the issue on March 21 from No. 10, Downing Street, of the text of messages exchanged between Mr. Churchill and Mr. Curtin. It was thought generally in Australia that Mr. Churchill was animated by only the highest motives; that his intention probably was to give an Imperial colour to his War Cabinet because of the impracticability of setting up an Imperial Conference in London. Such a Conference was not only impracticable, but Canada made it plain that she had no desire for one. Because this view was taken of Mr. Casey's appointment there was a good deal of regret that it should have been marred somewhat by its sequel.

Since Mr. Casey immediately took up his duties as Minister of State in

Cairo his work for Australia in Washington was shouldered temporarily by Dr. Evatt, who, as Australia's Minister for External Affairs, was *en route* to London. Later, Sir Owen Dixon took over. Besides playing an important part in the creation of this international machinery for the easier prosecution of the war in the Pacific, Australia sought to readjust old machinery at home and to create new.

War at Australia's front door brought home to the people, to the State Governments, and to the Federal Government the urgent need for a greater industrial effort, a new approach to the man-power problem, and a far higher degree of austerity.

Australia's 'Dunkirk'

For instance, after Mr. Curtin put into words what every Australian felt when he described the fall of Singapore as "Australia's Dunkirk," a complete mobilization of the country's resources was announced on February 17. Among other things this involved the prohibition of the manufacture of non-essential goods, and women were asked to take over men's jobs. A reduction in the sale of beer and spirits was a typical obvious change that came across the face of the Continent, and this change was deepened by the reduction in the number of race meetings allowed. Men streamed out of offices, factories and from the land. Women passed them going the other way.

American convoys began reaching Australia at the end of February. Quantities of American equipment arrived on a lease-lend basis. From the start it was plain enough to observers that the impact of this neighbourly invasion would have profound psychological repercussions. On the first occasion that Australia had been invaded in such a way it was by Asiatics: that was in the gold-rush days of 1850. A great deal of good flowed from that "invasion." An impetus was given to Australia's intellectual development and, generally, the experience enriched her. Between then and the first six months of the war in the Pacific there had been no comparable "invasion." Only small wavelets of immigration from Britain and the European Continent had to be dealt with; and the Commonwealth was visited by few Americans, mostly tourists.

In March the A.I.F. militia and permanent army were combined in one homogeneous force. After MacArthur's appointment General Blamey, then second in command in the Middle East, was appointed C.-in-C. of the land forces in Australia. And on April 19 MacArthur's headquarters issued a statement on the new command in the S.W. Pacific area. New Zealand, on April 23, made it clear that these new commands in no way involved New Zealand, because New Zealand was declared to be in a new U.S. naval command, separate from MacArthur's command.

These military announcements were followed by a broadcast to the United Kingdom by Mr. Curtin, who spoke "from the land that is preparing to meet an invasion." By this time the Japanese were pressing down rapidly. With what they had, the Australians were pushing north as fast as they could.

Singapore, with the unexpectedness of a thunderbolt, fell on February 15, the surrender being signed at 7 p.m. local time, 12.30 p.m. British time. General Percival said the cause was shortage of water, petrol, food, ammunition. What General Gordon Bennett, who led the Australians, thought the fall was due to has not been published, although he escaped and, after adventures, turned up in Australia, there writing a report which was forwarded to Whitehall. A special correspondent of The Times, telling a deplorable story of ineptitude and neglect in which the absence of forceful leadership played a large part, said:

"Until more aeroplanes are made available to the Allied forces in the Pacific so that they can gain edge over the Japanese in the air, it is going to be difficult to hold the Japanese at sea and on the ground. It is not the Japanese who are strong in the air, it is the Allies who are weak."

Japan's success rested on air and naval supremacy. Her air force was a surprise, technically and numerically. The Allied forces met Japan's airmen





AUSTRALIAN-BUILT AIRCRAFT AND SMALL-ARMS

Top, Australia was largely dependent, at the outbreak of the war with Japan, on Wirraway aircraft, based on a type designed for training and built in the Dominion. The Owen sub-machine gun (left, being packed for issue) was invented by Evelyn Owen, of the A.I.F. It fires at the rate of 600 rounds per minute and resembles the Sten gun. *Photos, Australian Official; Sport & General*



JAPANESE MENACE TO AUSTRALIA

The Japanese conquest of the chain of islands to the north and east deprived Australia of her natural shield against invasion. Henceforth fighter and bomber aircraft could be flown in stages from Japan to Timor, New Guinea, and the Solomons, and the war had come to Australia's 'front door.' But General MacArthur decided to meet the enemy in New Guinea, and fight out the issue there.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

with only Brewster Buffalos, Hudsons and some Australian-made trainer craft called Wirraways. The Allies had only a handful of high-flying bombers, while the Japanese had low-flying ones and plenty of dive-bombers. Most reliable estimates indicate that half the Allied air force was destroyed on the ground in the first onslaught.

In a naval sense the blow at Pearl Harbour temporarily knocked out the bottom of the Allied position. Every battleship and most of the aircraft were put out of action. The "Repulse" and the "Prince of Wales," sunk by Japanese aircraft off the Malayan coast on December 10, 1941, were the strongest British units in the Pacific. With Japan mistress of the seas and the skies it became clear, with the fall of Singapore, that the Allies never had a chance on land short of a line immediately north of Australia and running through the Netherlands East Indies, Java, Timor and New Guinea. In Malaya the Allies had in the field two Indian divisions, two Australian brigades, some British battalions, and some garrison troops. No exact official figure is available; but the total force is believed to have numbered between 60,000 and 95,000 men. With this force, the Allies attempted to hold an area larger than England against an expert, fanatical army, trained on entirely new lines in jungle warfare, equipped in an entirely new way, and immunized for jungle warfare.

Effect of Naval Disasters

Almost before Australians realized it the Malayan campaign was over. Australia, like New Zealand and South Africa, declared war on Japan on December 9 (24 hours after the British Government had declared Britain to be at war with Japan). Putting infiltration tactics into operation instantly, a comparatively small Japanese force, estimated to be about two divisions strong, began to constrain the British and Dominion forces to withdraw from one strong point to another, from one line to another, until at last Singapore was reached: and from Singapore there was nowhere else to withdraw, except across sea, and there were not enough ships to take away the troops who found themselves cut off and trapped.

The first major withdrawal in which Australians took part was enforced on December 10, when the Japanese took Kota Bharu aerodrome, and the Imperial Forces retired southward. There were only a handful of Australians at Hongkong when, on December 13, the Japanese demand for its surrender was refused—a refusal repeated on December 17 by the Governor, Sir Mark Young. (The water supply cut off, Hongkong surrendered on December 25.) By December 16 Japan had gained ground in Kedah, in Malaya; while in Burma the British withdrew from Victoria Point.

From then on the position went from bad to worse. Australia had been sending volunteers to Malaya for a year before Japan struck. These troops, together with British and Indian regulars, had trained for this hour. Now all the visions of a quick, glorious defeat of the Japanese were evaporating with the speed of water in a shallow pan in a tropical sun. Penang was evacuated on December 19. Japan's conquest of Malaya was complete when Singapore capitulated on February 15.

With little variation this story, dismally enough, applies to the invasion of the Dutch Islands, begun on December 16. Methodically, the Japanese began at the north and finished up in the south. It was this southward drive which offered a direct threat to Australia; by the end of January the threat was acute.

Bombs were dropped on Australia for the first time on February 19, when Japanese aircraft swooped on Port Darwin. Meeting with little opposition, having the advantage of surprise, they did considerable damage to installations and ships in the harbour, besides inflicting casualties. After that there were air-raids on Broome, on the west coast, and Townsville, on the east coast. The fear was that Japan would take Port Moresby in New Guinea—which would give her the key position north of Australia and from which a grand assault on the Commonwealth might be launched.

General Bennett on March 2 told Australia that a "Japanese attack is coming very quickly." As this warning came after the battle of the Java Sea (February 27) Australians were ready to believe it. In the late afternoon a small Allied squadron sighted and engaged a Japanese fleet protecting an invasion convoy. Although outnumbered, the Allied ships continued the engagement for three days until their entire force was wiped out—five cruisers, six destroyers and the Australian sloop H.M.A.S. "Yarra."

Gordon Bennett's Warning

Dutch forces evacuated Batavia on March 5. During March the Japanese bombed Port Moresby on 15 separate days, with the idea of blasting Australians out of it. On March 8 they landed in force at Salamaua and Lae in New Guinea. The Rising Sun flag was flying boldly now over innumerable islands and a vast amount of territory —from Tongking Gulf to the Java Sea. Imperial and Allied forces had retreated steadily in the face of the invader.

Australians who were alarmed by the tragic cavalcade of events had their thoughts expressed for them on March 9, by Dr. van Mook, Lieut. Governor-General of the Netherlands East Indies, who on reaching Adelaide said: "There should be an end to destroying and retreating." It was easier to say this than to do it, although next day a vivid flash of encouragement shot through the dark clouds overhanging the Pacific as Allied aircraft, based on Australia, put out of action seven ships of a



WHERE AUSTRALIA'S BATTLE WAS TO BE FOUGHT

General Douglas MacArthur, on reaching Australia in March 1942, determined that the battle for the Dominion should be fought out in New Guinea, and not on Australian soil. New Guinea, divided in sovereignty between the Netherlands and Australia, has an area of about 315,000 square miles. Top, in the harbour at Port Moresby a merchantman is almost hidden by splashes from near bomb hits during one of the frequent Japanese raids. Below, U.S. officers examining wreckage of enemy Zero fighter shot down in the mountains. Right, bombed hangar of Mandated Airlines at Salamaua. Lower right, an American officer visits a Papuan village.

Photos, Keystone; Associated Press; Central Press

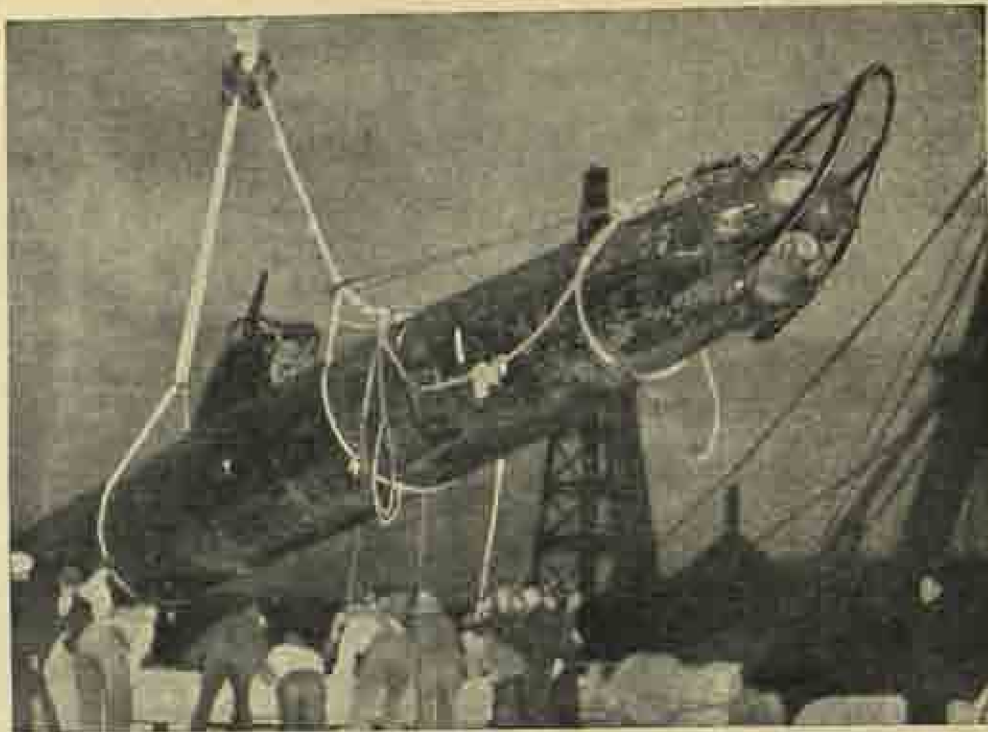






Japanese invasion fleet heading for Port Moresby. It was the first large crippling blow from the air delivered against the Japanese in that section of the Pacific front. Stimulated by their success, the Allies launched new air raids against Salamaua, Lae and Rabaul.

These raids surprised and puzzled the enemy. They were unexpected and the Japanese could not guess accurately how much they were representative of the defensive power of Australia. They also imbued the Australian Federal Government with a renewed spirit of the offensive. Mr. Curtin, broadcasting to America on March 13, declared: "Our minds are set on attack." Five days later Washington announced successful Allied attacks on Japanese shipping and land installations in New Guinea: 23 ships were put out of action, including four warships; five transports were sunk, and five warships were damaged for the loss of one aircraft.



NEW TACTICS IN UNDER-SEA WARFARE

First used in the attack on Pearl Harbour, midget submarines of the type here seen were employed again in the futile raid on shipping in Sydney Harbour during the night of May 31–June 1, 1942. There are no engines proper, and the batteries for the propulsion motors have to be charged by the parent ship from which the submarine is launched. The vessel seen above is being raised from Sydney Harbour, where it was sunk by the port defences. *Photo, Keystone*

To paraphrase a road sign familiar to motorists, Japan read these signs as: "Halt. Major danger ahead." From March 18 Japan did not cease trying to worm her way into a position where she would dominate all the territory,



DR. HERBERT V. EVATT

Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Dr. Evatt took over for a time the duties in Washington laid down by Mr. R. G. Casey when the latter became Minister of State in Cairo. On May 2, 1942, Dr. Evatt came to London and, as accredited representative, attended meetings of the War Cabinet and Pacific War Council. He arrived back in Australia on June 21. *Photo, Associated Press*

swinging in an arc from Thailand to New Guinea, which lies like a scimitar poised above Australia. Her last great attempt in the first six months of the war was made between May 4 and May 9, when the Battle of the Coral Sea was fought. Actually, this significant naval and air battle (in which air power was decisive) began off the Solomon Islands on May 4. A part of a Japanese invasion fleet was intercepted by U.S. naval and air forces. On May 7 the battle was resumed in the Coral Sea and resulted in the Japanese fleet withdrawing north. Japanese losses were seven major war ships sunk, two probably sunk, and more than 20 damaged; U.S. losses were the aircraft-carrier "Lexington," one destroyer and one tanker.

At the end of June Japan's defensive orbit could be traced from the Aleutians in the north Pacific to Java. Yet the struggle was concentrated in the central Pacific, or Oceania. Here there are about 3,500 islands. The principal Powers participating were Japan, America, Australia and New Zealand. It was the opinion of military experts in the English-speaking countries that, although a brake had been put on Japan's juggernaut, the crucial battles were ahead; superiority in combined sea and air power would be decisive.

Before the war America's principal interests in the Pacific centred upon the defence of her western coast and Alaska. The pivotal point in all her naval strategy was the Panama Canal, link between the Pacific and the Atlantic. Added to this were her trade routes to the Far East, Australia and South America. Strategically, Britain's main defensive base was Singapore, that wonderful naval base (not remotely resembling a fortress) driven like a huge steel stake into the cross-roads on the Straits of Malacca. It guarded Australia and New Zealand and was the key to the ocean gateways to India.

At the end of the first six months a glance at the strategic pattern showed the Japanese were satisfied that control of New Guinea was a vital factor if they were successfully to attempt a large-scale invasion of Australia. On the other hand, the Allies knew that New Guinea must be recaptured and freed entirely from Japanese forces before a firm defensive line could be drawn north of Australia between Timor Island and New Guinea. They were satisfied—not in theory, but as a result of perilous experience—that New Guinea was a stepping-stone between themselves and Japan, and that Java was only second in importance.

To prove these strategic facts Japan had taken, temporarily, supreme command over a radius of more than 3,000 miles at a cost to Australia of approximately 20,000 casualties (all Services) killed, wounded, prisoners or missing.

Historic Documents. CCXLVIII—CCXLIX

EPOCH-MAKING TREATIES WITH THE U.S.S.R.

On May 26, 1942 the alliance between Britain and Russia was consummated by the signing of a Treaty of Collaboration and Mutual Assistance. The second Part, dealing with common action to preserve peace in the post-war period, was to run for 20 years. In January both Britain and Russia had concluded a Treaty with Persia, the text of which is also given here.

ANGLO-SOVIET-IRANIAN TREATY OF ALLIANCE, SIGNED AT TEHERAN ON JANUARY 29, 1942

THE preamble states that it is based on the principles of the Atlantic Charter and results from the desire of the three parties to strengthen the bonds of friendship and mutual understanding. Treaty contains nine articles:

Article 1. Britain and the U.S.S.R. undertake to respect the territorial integrity, sovereignty and political independence of Iran.

Article 2. Establishes an alliance between the two Powers and Iran.

Article 3. The Allied Powers undertake to defend Iran from aggression by Germany or any other Power. Iran undertakes to co-operate with the Allies by all the means at its command, but the assistance of the Iranian forces will be limited to maintaining internal security. Furthermore the Allies receive the right to maintain, guard and in certain circumstances control all means of communication, and will receive all assistance and facilities in obtaining material and recruiting labour; at the same time the Allies will give full consideration to the essential needs of Iran.

Article 4. Permits the Allies to maintain in Iran such land, sea and air forces as they consider necessary; their presence on Iranian territory will not constitute a military occupation and will disturb as little as possible the normal life of the country.

Article 5. Lays down that the Allied forces shall be withdrawn not later than six months after hostilities cease.

Article 6. Binds Britain and the U.S.S.R. not to adopt in their relations with other countries an attitude prejudicial to the territorial integrity or political independence of Iran, nor to conclude treaties inconsistent with the present treaty. Iran will be consulted in all matters affecting her direct interests and will on her side likewise undertake similar obligations towards the Allies.

Article 7. The Allied Powers undertake to safeguard as far as possible the economic existence of the Iranian people against privations and difficulties arising out of the war.

Article 8. Lays down that the provisions of the treaty are equally binding as bilateral obligations between Iran and each of the Allied Powers.

Article 9. Lays down that the treaty remains in force until withdrawal of the British and Russian forces from Iran.

TREATY OF ALLIANCE IN THE WAR AGAINST HITLERITE GERMANY AND HER ASSOCIATES IN EUROPE AND OF COLLABORATION AND MUTUAL ASSISTANCE THEREAFTER BETWEEN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS AND THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND: LONDON, MAY 26, 1942.

HIS Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics;

Have decided to conclude a treaty for that purpose and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India,

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: The Right Honourable Anthony Eden, M.P., His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs;

The Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics: M. Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs,

Who, having communicated their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

PART I.

Article I. In virtue of the alliance established between the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to afford one another military and other assistance and support of all kinds in the war against Germany and all those States which are associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Article II. The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into any negotiations with the Hitlerite Government or any other Government in Germany that does not clearly renounce all aggressive intentions, and not to negotiate or conclude except by mutual consent any armistice or peace treaty with Germany or any other State associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

PART II.

Article III. (1) The High Contracting Parties declare their desire to unite with other like-minded States in adopting proposals for common action to preserve peace and resist aggression in the post-war period.

(2) Pending the adoption of such proposals, they will after the termination of hostilities take all the measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Article IV. Should one of the High Contracting Parties during the post-war period become involved in hostilities with Germany or any of the States mentioned in Article III (2) in consequence of an attack by that State against that Party, the other High Contracting Party will at once give to the Contracting Party so involved in hostilities all the military and other support and assistance in his power.

This Article shall remain in force until the High Contracting Parties, by mutual consent, shall recognise that it is superseded by the adoption of the proposals contemplated in Article III (1). In default of the adoption of such proposals, it shall remain in force for a period of 20 years, and thereafter until terminated by either High Contracting Party, as provided in Article VIII.

Article V. The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests and the security of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the re-establishment of peace for the organization of security and economic prosperity in Europe. They will take into account the interests of the United Nations in these objects, and they will act in accordance with the two principles of not seeking territorial aggrandizement for themselves and of non-interference in the internal affairs of other States.

Article VI. The High Contracting Parties agree to render one another all possible economic assistance after the war.

Article VII. Each High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in any coalition directed against the other High Contracting Party.

Article VIII. The present treaty is subject to ratification in the shortest possible time, and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Moscow as soon as possible.

It comes into force immediately on the exchange of the instruments of ratification, and shall thereupon replace the agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, signed at Moscow on July 12, 1941.

Part I of the present treaty shall remain in force until the re-establishment of peace between the High Contracting Parties and Germany and the Powers associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Part II of the present treaty shall remain in force for a period of 20 years. Thereafter, unless 12 months' notice has been given by either party to terminate the treaty at the end of the said period of 20 years, it shall continue in force until 12 months after either High Contracting Party shall have given notice to the other in writing of his intention to terminate it.



POSTERS INFORMED, EXHORTED & INSPIRED

Continuing our documentary record of war-time Britain, here is a further selection from the many Home front posters which helped to sustain and increase the war effort. In the main the appeals were robust, forthright and well directed, though there were lapses (not here illustrated) on to lower levels. Note the striking example issued by the British Railways; and the significant slogan stencilled on goods for export. (See also pp. 551, 828, 1183, 1417, 1489.)

TESTING TIME FOR THE HOME FRONT: FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1942

This Chapter covers the period January to June, 1942, a time of disappointment and disaster that called for and found wise and discerning leadership and a ready response on the part of the Nation. Opening with Mr. Churchill's account of his stewardship, on his return from Washington, it closes with his reply to his critics again on July 2, on the motion of censure

HAVING reached with Mr. Roosevelt what was described by the President's secretary as "a complete understanding on joint planning for present and future military and naval operations," Mr. Churchill left Washington for home early in January 1942. On the way back he spent a brief holiday in Florida and from there proceeded to Bermuda, where he inspected the base recently leased to the U.S. and delivered a short address to the legislative assembly (see illus., p. 1918). Then on January 16 he set off again in a British Airways flying-boat, made the crossing of 3,365 miles in just under 18 hours, and arrived at Plymouth on January 17. A few hours later he was back at his desk in Downing Street.

The Premier's statement on his consultations with the American President was eagerly awaited, more particularly since the news from every theatre of war contributed to the burden of the critics. It was made to the House of Commons on January 27—a long speech, the first of a long debate marked throughout by speaking of the most forthright description.

Vote of Confidence

"Since my return to this country," began the Premier, "I have come to the conclusion that I must ask to be sustained by a vote of confidence from the House of Commons." This was a thoroughly normal, constitutional, democratic procedure. A debate on the war had been asked for; he had arranged that it should be carried on in the fullest and freest manner for three whole days. Any member would be able to say anything he thought fit about or against the administration, the composition or personalities of the Government, subject only to the reservation about military secrets. The House would fail in its duty if it did not insist upon freedom of debate and a clear and honest vote. "It is because things have gone badly, and worse is to come, that I demand a vote of confidence."

Then Mr. Churchill proceeded to his review. He began with a glowing tribute to the glorious achievements of the Russian armies; he went on to describe the "strange, sombre battle of the desert where our men have met the enemy for the first time . . . upon the whole . . . with equal weapons." Next he touched on the war with the vast military empire of Japan. He spoke of the gigantic munitions output of the British Isles, of the shipping situation, of the organization of China's four-and-a-half years' single-handed stand, of the great company of nations who were now united against the Axis. There had been terrific changes in the past three months, particularly the last three weeks. Some of the more important of these dated from his recent meeting with Mr. Roosevelt in Washington. The vanguard of the American Army had already arrived in the United Kingdom; U.S. air squadrons were coming to take part in the defence of Britain and the bombing offensive against Germany; the U.S. Navy was so linked in intimate union with the Admiralty in both the Atlantic and Pacific that henceforth naval movements would be planned together as if the two Navies were one fleet. Yet another great change had been the formation of the League of 26 Nations, based on the principle of the Atlantic Charter. The Premier and President had taken steps for the defence of Australasia and the British and Dutch possessions in the East Indies against Japanese aggression. Finally they had established a vast common pool of raw materials and shipping, of weapons and munitions.

"Therefore," concluded the Premier, "I feel entitled to come to the House of Commons, whose servant I am, and ask them not to press me to act against my conscience and better judgement and make scapegoats in order to improve my own position; not to press me to do things which might be clamoured for at the moment but which will not help in our war effort; but, on the contrary, to

IN THE 'BRITISH RESTAURANT' AT MERTON, SURREY

It was decorated by pupils of the Slade School of Art to designs by John Piper, representing the ruins of Merton Abbey. Born of the severe air raids which tore down and blasted away not only peoples' homes but many catering establishments where they might have gone for meals, the 'British Restaurants' set up by the Food Ministry won instant success and appreciation. The 1,000th restaurant was opened at Slough on August 23, 1941, by Lord Woolton, Minister of Food.

Photo, "The Times"



give me their encouragement and their aid. I have never ventured to predict the future. I stand by my original programme, 'Blood, toil, tears and sweat,' which is all I have ever offered and to which is added five months later, 'Many shortcomings, mistakes, and disappointments.' But it is because I see the light gleaming behind the clouds and brightening upon our path that I make so bold now as to demand a declaration of the confidence of the House of Commons as an additional weapon in the armoury of the United Nations."



AIRCRAFT PRODUCTION

Col. J. J. Llewellin, P.C., C.B.E., M.C. Appointed President of the Board of Trade on February 4, 1942, he was formerly Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Aircraft Production. Later in the month he became Minister of Aircraft Production, his place at the Board of Trade being taken by Dr. Hugh Dalton.



SECRETARY FOR WAR

Sir James Grigg, K.C.B., K.C.S.I. From his Civil Service post of Permanent Under-Secretary at the War Office he was appointed Secretary for War in succession to Captain Margesson on February 22, 1942. Before going to the War Office in 1939 he had been Finance Member of the Government of India.

Photos, Sport & General; Topical Press

First to follow the Premier in the debate was Mr. Pethick-Lawrence, who began with a caustic reference to those who for various reasons had been paying lip-service to Mr. Churchill's leadership while at the same time seeking to undermine it. He hoped the Premier would, after proper investigation, cause a drastic purge to be made of these backsliders. But for the rest, like nearly every other speaker, he was in anxious vein, and the note of criticism was seldom absent. Why had the "Prince of Wales" and the "Repulse" been sent to eastern waters without proper air protection? he inquired. Mr. Erskine-Hill asked how it was that in Malaya they seemed to be so certain before Pearl Harbour that there was nothing to worry about; Sir H. Williams delivered a vitriolic attack on the Civil Service; Mr. Henderson Stewart scoffed at the Prime Minister's disclosure that production was now better than it had been; what really mattered was that it was not big enough, and had not been properly conducted.

On the second day Mr. Attlee, Lord Privy Seal, formally moved a vote of confidence in the Government. The debate was opened by Sir J. Wardlaw-Milne; he acknowledged the immense service which Mr. Churchill had rendered in visiting America, but for the rest he was outspokenly critical, particularly over the situation that had been revealed in the Far East; he expressed extreme disgust at the flights of fancy indulged in by officials at Singapore and by some of the recent communiqués from Cairo. Coming then to the home front, he expressed the view that in their desire and determination to win the war the Government as a whole was to him a great shining light, and that was why he supported it, but in other matters sometimes it was no better than a gas jet.

Another anxious note was struck by Mr. Grahame White, who declared that there was a growing feeling among both civilians and soldiers that they would like to have a clear idea of the kind of peace they were fighting for; there were still some people, he averred, who felt that they had not got a frightful lot to lose. Mr. Shinwell followed in bellicose mood; in particular he expressed the deepest concern over the shipping situation. Then Major Randolph Churchill defended his father's team in a spirited speech. Perhaps it was not a very good Government, he said; but then, "Is it a very good House of Commons?"

On the third day there were more critical speeches, the most notable being those by Mr. Hore-Belisha and Earl Winterton. Then Mr. Churchill replied. It had been a full and free debate, he said; no criticism had been hampered or stifled—such a debate, indeed, as would have been impossible in any other country conducting a war. But because of this freedom the House of Commons had a great responsibility. Point by point he answered his critics on

Premier's Reply to Critics

the battles by sea and land, on the less dramatic but equally important events of the production front. Then he came to the naval disaster in which our two great warships had gone down. After a wholehearted defence of

AFTER A YEAR OF CLOTHES RATIONING

New books of clothing coupons were issued as from June 1, 1942, containing 60 coupons intended to last until July 31, 1943 (later extended to August 31). A quarter of a million tons of shipping had been saved on textiles alone during the first 12 months of the rationing scheme.



Sir Tom Phillips' action in Malaya, he came to his conclusion. "I offer no apologies. I offer no excuses. I make no promises. . . . I have finished. Let every man act now in accordance with what he thinks is his duty, in harmony with his heart and conscience." The House divided and the voting revealed 464 for the vote of confidence, with Mr. Maxton as the solitary occupant of the "no" lobby.

Overwhelmingly large as was the Government's majority, it did not indicate anything more than the Commons' belief that in that grim hour Mr. Churchill was the only possible captain of the ship of state. It was a personal triumph, not an affirmation of confidence in the men who were the Premier's aides in his tremendous tasks. So it was not surprising that the debate was followed by a partial reconstruction of the Cabinet. On February 4 it was announced from 10, Downing Street, that Lord Beaverbrook had been appointed Minister of Production, his place as Minister of Supply being taken by Sir Andrew Duncan; at the same time Col. J. J. Llewellin had become President of the Board of Trade, but the new arrangement apparently did not work satisfactorily, since a fortnight later, on February 19, following the grave tidings of the invasion of Burma, the fall of Singapore, and the escape of the Nazi warships from Brest, a reconstitution of the War Cabinet was announced. Mr. Attlee became Deputy Prime Minister and Secretary for the Dominions; Sir Stafford Cripps assumed the duties of Leader of the House of Commons, while holding the portfolio of Lord Privy Seal; Mr. Oliver Lyttelton would



UTILITY 'LIGHTER'

Owing to short supplies of matches the petrol lighter came into even greater demand, and various Government patterns were put on the market at the controlled price of 6s. 6d. at the end of 1941. They were made mainly of plastics, and used little metal.



BOON TO THE HOUSEWIFE

More urgent demands on shipping space forbade the importing of feeding stuffs for poultry, and, in consequence, the supply of shell eggs fell off alarmingly. In the summer of 1942 supplies of dried egg in powder form were made available for domestic consumers. A package, equivalent to 12 eggs, cost 1s. 9d. Inset, a Product Group marking for controlled confectionery.

return from Cairo to assume general direction of production as Minister of State; Sir Kingsley Wood was omitted from the new War Cabinet, although he continued to act as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lord Beaverbrook and Mr. Greenwood were dropped from the Government altogether.

Yet more changes were to come. On February 22 the rather surprising appointment was announced of Sir James Grigg, a permanent Civil Servant, to the post of Secretary for War; at the same time Lord Cranborne became Colonial Secretary and Leader of the House of Lords; Dr. Hugh Dalton, President of the Board of Trade; Lord Portal, Minister of Works and Buildings; Col. Llewellin, Minister of Aircraft Production; and Lord Wolmer, Minister for Economic Warfare. Another list of ministerial changes was published on March 4, the most interesting appointment being that of Sir William Jowitt as Paymaster-General—in itself a sinecure post, but it was stated that Sir William would carry out the duties hitherto performed by Mr. Greenwood in connexion with the study of post-war problems. Then on March 12 the Premier informed the House of Commons that Mr. Lyttelton was being appointed Minister of Production with general responsibility for the whole field of production. A number of minor ministerial changes were also announced.

Deadlock in India

To Sir Stafford Cripps fell the delicate task of taking to India the British Government's proposals for a plan to end the deadlock with Congress and other political parties, which was frustrating the Indian war effort. Sir Stafford reached Delhi on March 23 and had talks with many personalities representing the chief parties. A draft Declaration was published on the 30th, offering the setting up of an elected All-India constituent assembly as soon as hostilities ended, this body to draw up a Constitution for a Union of provinces and states having full Dominion status. For a time it seemed as if the principal parties might come to agreement and accept the proposals in substance, but Gandhi took up an absurd and unrealistic attitude, and

MADE FROM UTILITY CLOTHS

The sponsoring by the British Government of textile materials which could be made up into serviceable and attractive clothes for men and women at reasonable (controlled) prices prov. d a great boon. Here are typical examples. Inset is the official label which distinguished Utility garments.

Photo, "New York Times"





AWAY WITH THE RAILINGS!

The removal of railings from streets and parks provided metal for the foundries to turn into weapons, and saved the importation of scrap, of which half a million tons per annum used to be obtained from the U.S.A. alone. To pedestrians and bus passengers it opened up vistas such as this—Park Lane, Hyde Park, in Spring, 1942, with crocuses in full flower. *Photo, Fox*

the Moslem League leaders also would not relax their demands, so that early in April the Draft was withdrawn and Sir Stafford returned to London, having carried out his onerous mission with great tact and skill. (*See* Chapter 223.)

Britain's Financial Soundness

Opening his War Budget for the year 1942-43 in the House of Commons on April 14, Sir Kingsley Wood drew a picture of a country which, in spite of an immense load of taxation and borrowing, was still financially sound. He claimed that the Government's economic policy was being justified by its fruits. Prices had been successfully stabilized; the price of the main staple foods showed some reduction; and though in clothing there had been a gradual increase, the Government was taking direct control of prices, and Utility clothing was to be fostered. Rents had been practically stationary since the outbreak of war, and railway fares were now stabilized. As a result, the cost of living index was 29 per cent above pre-war, as compared with 28 per cent in April 1941. For the coming year the Chancellor estimated the expenditure at £5,286,479,000, while the revenue, it was anticipated, would amount to £2,627,100,000, leaving a deficiency of £2,659,379,000. The Purchase Tax on a number of "luxury articles" was doubled, another twopence a pint was put on beer, the duty on tobacco was increased and Entertainment Tax was doubled from May 10. The Chancellor revealed that during the past year the number of wage-earners paying income tax had increased to 5,500,000, and they had paid £125,000,000, of which £60,000,000 was in respect of post-war credits; there would be improvements in the method of collection of tax from wage-earners in receipt of fluctuating wages.

The function of the post-war credit was a double one: it provided a nest-egg for the taxpayer who had been mulcted of some of the reliefs to which he had been entitled in previous years, and it cut down spending power. In the year 1941–42 it had amounted to nearly half of the total tax bill of £125,000,000, a remarkable sum. For a married man with one child, on a weekly average wage of £6, the credit amounted to £16 10s. for the year. Along with the assessment for his 1942–43 tax the citizen received a neat certificate showing the amount of the post-war credit for the past year and an explanation as to how the amount was made up. Eleven million certificates were issued.

Then there was the minor problem of the wife's share when she, too, was gainfully occupied and taxable. Normally the certificate was to be sent to the husband (when the couple were assessed together), and would include the wife's share as well as his own. Where the wife had a separate income and desired some of the credit in her name this could be arranged. Should husband and wife be unable to agree on the amount to go to each, then the Inspector of Taxes would divide the credit according to the amount of their respective incomes.

Satisfactory Food Situation

Speaking on January 6, Lord Woolton, Minister of Food, had stated that the beginning of a new year found the British people "fighting fit," and there was every reason to believe they would remain so. Prices of a number of vital foodstuffs had been controlled; control of distribution had gone hand in hand with price control. As a result of these measures, coupled with food subsidies now totalling about £100,000,000 a year, the cost of food had become stable, and food had been directed to those whose needs were greatest, viz. children and adolescents, expectant and nursing mothers, industrial and agricultural workers. Coal miners would soon receive similar consideration. More than 1,100 British Restaurants were in operation and others were constantly added.

Two months later, on March 3, the food situation was debated in the House of Commons, and Major Lloyd George, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Food, was able to give further encouraging facts. There had been difficulties, of course; eggs, fish, and winter milk had been short, but there



W.V.S. PREPARES FOOD FOR BOMBED-OUT PEOPLE

This emergency "Food Flying Squad" van is staffed by personnel of the Women's Voluntary Services, and is seen at Canterbury after one of the heavy raids on that city. The W.V.S. undertook all sorts of work arising out of war conditions as they affect the population, and was a strong pillar of Civil Defence. *Photo, Associated Press*







WOMEN WHO REPLACED MEN

Over a wide field women took the place of men in work demanding patience, skill, initiative and devotion. More often than not, those in engineering works and shipyards and other places performed duties upon the correct execution of which the lives of soldiers and sailors and airmen depended. Top, left, assembling Sten guns at a Royal Ordnance factory. (The Sten machine-carbine, a British invention, was put into mass production in June 1942, and was issued in increasing numbers to the regular Armed Forces and the Home Guard.) Bottom, checking final details of completed Merlin-20 engines for aircraft. Top, right, dockyard workers coming ashore from a British destroyer which is being refitted. Centre, left, Scottish girls who felled and transported timber in the Highlands.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; L.N.A.; "New York Times"





SAVING PETROL AND RUBBER

Along with the abolition of pleasure motoring went a drastic control of commercial transport. Much long-distance haulage was diverted to the railways; local deliveries were pooled, the motor vehicles of various traders being utilized in a common scheme serving all. *Photo, Topical Press*

had been no bread shortage. Then on March 11 Lord Woolton announced that, with a view to conserving vitally important shipping space, the Government had decided to increase to 85 per cent the ratio of flour from wheat milled in this country, so "white" bread would be no longer available. As from April 6 its sale was made illegal, save under special licence, the only bread sold from that date would be national wholemeal or authorized brown breads, made from wheat of at least 85 per cent extraction. (The effect was to obtain a greater yield of bread [or flour] from the corn milled.)

A new Acquisition of Food Order issued in March banned the hoarding of unrationed foods beyond the reasonable needs of the household, etc., for four weeks. The "points" rationing scheme was extended to take in condensed milk and breakfast cereals, and the office tea ration was cut to ½ lb. instead of 1 lb. a week for 20 workers—all from April 6. On May 12 it was announced by Lord Woolton that from June 1 restaurant meals would be restricted to three courses, and food would not be served after 11 p.m. (midnight in London), except to hotel residents and night workers, in establishments specially licensed to serve such workers and travellers. As from June 15 the price of restaurant meals would be limited to 5s., with maxima for whisky, gin, and beer (not wines or cocktails), a maximum charge of 2s. 6d. for cabaret and dancing, and of 6d. in each 5s. for service. Some luxury hotels would be permitted to make a "house charge," maximum 7s. 6d.

Meals in Restaurants

Although these and a host of similar measures were obviously inspired by a concern for the general good, there continued to be some, in all classes of society, who were resolved if possible to obtain more than their fair share of a severely restricted stock. "Black market" operations in foodstuffs, as in some raw materials, clothing, fuel, petrol, and other goods subject to rationing and public control, gave rise to much anxiety. New regulations were passed to make the way of the black marketeer harder, more expensive, and more dangerous; on March 11 Mr. Herbert Morrison announced that under the Defence Regulations the maximum penalties for black market activities had been raised to 12 months' imprisonment on summary conviction, and to 14 years' penal servitude on indictment.

Coming now to clothing, Dr. Dalton announced on March 17 reductions in the issue and extension of the validity of the coupons. The production of Utility clothing was entrusted to a number of designated firms. An order was made prohibiting the manufacture of men's double-breasted coats and turn-up trousers, and putting a limit on buttons and pockets; men's shirts were to be shorter, and pyjamas were to be pocketless. Women's Utility garments were to combine simplicity with excellent value for money. Domestic soap was rationed from February 9.

Whether or not to ration fuel gave rise to animated debate. On March 17 Dr. Dalton announced that the Government had resolved upon the introduction of a comprehensive scheme for the rationing of coal, light, and power; Sir William Beveridge, assisted by Sir Stephen Tallents, had been asked to prepare a scheme so as to ensure a sharp reduction in domestic consumption. On April 21 Dr. Dalton said that the Beveridge Report had been received, and that the Government had decided to introduce fuel rationing on a points system in accordance with his recommendations. But when issued as a White Paper the scheme was given a very hostile reception, largely because (so it was asserted) it would involve the setting up of fresh departments, employing more than 10,000 clerks. In the Commons the Labour members—at least most of them—supported the Beveridge proposals, but Conservative opposition was so strong that the scheme was greatly modified; a fuel target was to be fixed for each dwelling, etc., and this would permit the consumer to consume with a good conscience—there was no penalty for overstepping the "target"—so many "points" of fuel, according to the number of rooms in the house and its locality (north, midlands, or south). Coal was taken as the basis; and if other fuels were used, then 1 cwt. of coal was reckoned to be the equivalent of 5 therms of gas, 100 units of electricity, or 2 gallons of paraffin. Rationing was to begin on July 1. This plan, too, aroused much criticism, particularly from those who alleged that the Ministry of Fuel—a new ministry, of which Major Lloyd George was appointed the first head on June 3—was apparently of the opinion that in England the isotherms run north to south, while, in fact, they run from east to west. The "target" scheme was connected with a great advertising campaign, but many doubted whether any considerable number of householders would be able to determine their "target," still less to keep to it.

The basic petrol ration, it was announced on March 12, would be abolished on July 1, after which allowances would be granted only in cases of proved necessity. Thus private motoring was doomed—for the duration.

In the course of a debate in the House of Commons on woman-power on March 5, Mr. M. S. McCorquodale, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Labour, stated that 5,000,000 women had already registered, and of these 1,500,000 had been interviewed and more were being interviewed at the



SPLINTER PROTECTION ON 'TUBES' AND BUSES

By the use of a diamond-shaped aperture in the protective window netting passengers in Underground trains and in buses were given a better view than was possible with oblong or round openings. This worker is sealing the edges. *Photo, Associated Press*



DEAN OF CANTERBURY SURVEYS HIS RAVAGED CATHEDRAL

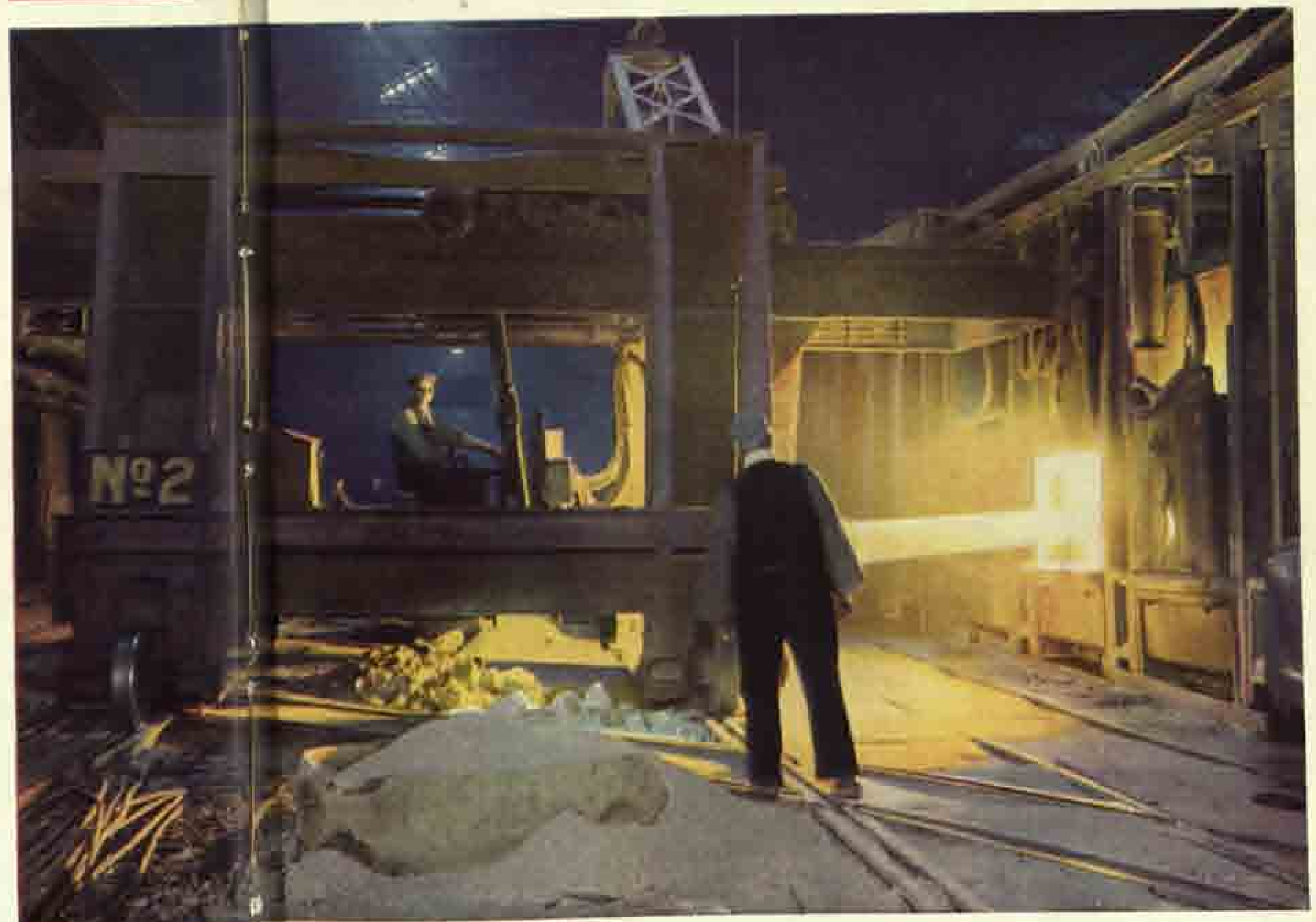
Bombs had fallen near Canterbury Cathedral during the Battle of Britain, on October 11, when some of the stained glass was shattered, and on the 26th (see illus., p. 2122). A direct attack was made by the Luftwaffe on the night of May 31–June 1, 1942, "as a reprisal for the terrorist attack by the British Air Force on the inner city of Cologne," according to the German High Command. Here the Dean, the Very Rev. Dr. Hewlett Johnson (left), and his Secretary, Mr. A. T. D'Eye, examine the wrecked Cathedral Library.

Direct colour photograph by Fox Photos









BRITAIN'S MIGHTY PRODUCTION EFFORT REACHES ITS PEAK

By the end of 1942 the output of Britain's steelworks and armament factories was reaching a satisfactory figure. But the building of a mighty Army and the demands for men for the Navy and Air Force raised a man-power problem only to be solved by the large-scale substitution of women, who took naturally to the new tasks and proved an outstanding success. Above, a former hairdresser, Miss Kathleen McCarthy, operates a machine for slotting the case striker body of a six-pounder gun (Royal Ordnance Factory). Top, centre, at work on practice bombs for the R.A.F. (Ministry of Aircraft Production Factory). Right, charging an open-hearth steel melting furnace; top, right, taking a sample from another furnace for testing.

Direct colour photographs by Sport & General and "Illustrated"



NEW BADGES OF THE BRITISH AND ALLIED SERVICES

Most of these need no explanation. Defensive guns on merchant ships are manned by units of the Maritime Regt. (shoulder flash of the R.A.), personnel of our ground defences wear the next badge to right—seen in this case on the shoulder of a woman of the A.T.S. Fires breaking out on Army property are dealt with by the Army Fire Service. The R.E.M.E. bring specialized technical experience to the problems of today's mechanized warfare. Other badges are given in p. 1655; those of auxiliary war services in p. 1540.

rate of 50,000 a week. Every month some 150,000 women were placed in jobs; and since the war began the number of women employed in munitions and other vital war industries had risen by 1,500,000. Mr. McCorquodale foreshadowed that an increasingly large number of "mobile" women would be transferred from their present employment in the less essential industries to industries of greater importance to the national war effort; it had already been announced that women shop-assistants from 25 to 30, except some engaged in retail food and coal distribution and specially trained "key" women, were being called up for the war factories. On March 19 it was announced that married women with no children living with them, and who had already registered, were likely to be interviewed for full or part-time work in munitions and other work in their own districts, to take the place of mobile women who were being transferred to other areas.

Not long afterwards Mr. Bevin stated that not far short of half of Britain's total population—some 20,000,000 men and women—were serving in the Armed Forces, Civil Defence, munitions, and other jobs more or less directly connected with the war effort. Even so, thousands, tens of thousands, hundreds of thousands more men and women were required for the war factories which were coming into production in town and country. In April the Home Secretary, Mr. Herbert Morrison, stated that about one-third of full-time Civil Defence and one-sixth of the National Fire Service personnel would be released for work in war factories, since not only was it now necessary to "replace defensive thinking by an offensive will to victory," but everything possible had to be done to relieve the strain on the country's man-power. As a result, a number of the more highly skilled craftsmen were released for industrial employment, and arrangements were also made for closer working between Civil Defence and the Home Guard.

Although thus denuded of something of its strength, the Civil Defence organization was kept at a high pitch of readiness. This example of official foresight was more than justified, since in May the long-continued immunity from large-scale air raids came to an abrupt termination: a number of English cathedral cities—Canterbury, Norwich, Exeter, York and Bath—were subjected to what were called Baedeker raids, ostensibly in revenge for the devastating raids on Lübeck and Rostock.

Transport came to an ever-increasing extent under Government control. The process of centralizing road traffic was proceeded with, and in June the Minister of Transport announced that a number of canals would be controlled in the same way as the railways, so as to afford some further relief to the heavily taxed road and rail systems. Every measure short of actual prohibition was tried to prevent the public from making unnecessary journeys; "Is your journey really necessary?" appeared above every ticket-office window, and the exhortation may have done something to cut down civilian travel, although the limitation and the eventual complete suppression of private motoring could not but have its effect on railway traffic returns.

The efficient and highly profitable running of the railways as a single unit under public control encouraged those in all parties who were inclined to believe that public corporations afforded an efficient and satisfactory half-way house between private enterprise and state socialism. This view was forcibly expressed in the House of Lords on January 17, when Lord Reith (formerly Minister of Works and Planning) initiated a debate on the future of the essential public services. Lord Portal, Minister of Works and Buildings, deprecated the raising of so controversial a matter, although he expressed the view that the transport, electricity, gas, and building industries were likely to continue to be controlled for some time after the end of the war. The debate was but one of many expressions of the opinion of those who believed that there could be no better time than the present to prepare for a better world after the war. The planners, as they were called, were to the fore in Press and Parliament—in the Church, too, for the new Archbishop of Canterbury,



NEW RIFLE AND BAYONET

Early in 1942 a new and shorter bayonet (right) was issued, only 6 inches long instead of the 17 inches of the former type (on left). It went with a new pattern Service rifle, more easily mass-produced and having a heavier barrel. Thus, after many years, the sword bayonet was superseded, and a cranked type of triangular section took its place.

Photo, "Daily Mirror"



THE WARNING SIREN

The air-raid siren was mounted on a suitable building, or on a lattice tower or iron standard. Its two voices, of different pitch, gave the penetrating chord which sounded the alert when modulated and the all-clear otherwise. This one was operated from the adjoining police station (Ruislip, Middlesex).

Photos, Fox; Topical Press



ANGLO-RUSSIAN TREATY OF ALLIANCE AND MUTUAL ASSISTANCE

The text of the Treaty is printed in page 2107. It was signed on May 26, 1942 at the Foreign Office and was to remain in force, as to Part I, until the signing of peace. Part II, concerned with the preservation of peace and with resistance to aggression after the war, was to run for 20 years. Left to right, Mr. Maisky, Ambassador to London; Mr. Molotov, Soviet People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs (signing); Mr. Anthony Eden, Foreign Secretary; Mr. Churchill; Mr. Attlee, Deputy Premier.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Dr. William Temple, who succeeded Archbishop Lang on February 22, had long been noted for his progressive views. Dr. Garbett, Bishop of Winchester, who followed Dr. Temple as Archbishop of York, had also revealed himself as one concerned with implementing the social gospel of Christianity.

Relations with the U.S.S.R. were consolidated by the signing on May 26, 1942, of a Treaty of Alliance and Mutual Assistance, to run for 20 years. The text is printed in p. 2107.

Mr. Churchill Again Visits Washington

In June Mr. Churchill crossed the Atlantic to visit President Roosevelt for the third time. He arrived in the States on June 18. On June 22 a joint statement was issued by the President and Premier to the effect that they were consulting concerning the earliest maximum concentration of Allied war power upon the enemy, and reviewing or concerting measures which for some time past had been on foot to develop and sustain the effort of the United Nations. On June 25 there was a meeting of the Pacific War Council, attended by President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill, Mr. Mackenzie King (Prime Minister of Canada), and other representatives of the Allies; and Mr. Soong, the Chinese Ambassador to the U.S.A., and Mr. Litvinov, his Russian colleague, were also received in audience by the two statesmen. Mr. Churchill—crossing the Atlantic, as on the way out, by air—returned to London on June 27; and on his arrival a joint statement was issued in London and Washington reviewing the consultations which had taken place. "The Prime Minister and the President have met twice before," ran its concluding paragraph. "There is no doubt in their minds that the overall picture is more favourable to victory than it was either in August or December of last year."

Implicit in these events and statements was more than one suggestion of the North African expedition to be launched so successfully in the following November. But although the plans were laid, or furthered, in Washington in June, not a whisper of what was afoot could be uttered. So it was that the critics at home continued to bat on an easy wicket. On July 1 a motion of censure on the Government was moved in the House of Commons by Sir John Wardlaw-Milne, on behalf of a small number of members of all parties: "That this House (it read), while paying tribute to the heroism and endurance of the Armed Forces of the Crown in circumstances of exceptional difficulty, has no confidence in the central direction of the war." Opening the debate, Sir John Wardlaw-Milne stated that the motion had only one object—that of helping to win the war in the shortest possible time. It was not an attack on the officers in the field; it was a definite attack on the central direction of the war in London, where the cause of our failures lay far more than in Libya and elsewhere. He criticized the Premier for adding to his enormous responsibilities by combining with that office the duties of the Minister of Defence; and he was also caustic concerning the organization, or lack of organization, of supply. But though there were many present who showed their eagerness to echo his accusations, his suggestion that the Duke of Gloucester should be appointed C.-in-C. of the Army was heard with almost incredulous surprise. Another highly critical speech came from Admiral Sir Roger Keyes, and many other members joined in the bombardment of the Treasury Bench. Mr. Oliver Lyttelton spoke at length in defence of the Ministry of Production, but it was Mr. Churchill himself who, on July 2, gave the final answer to the critics.

In his speech he ranged over the whole field of the truly global war. "I ask no favours either for myself or the Government," he declared just before he sat down. "I undertook the office of Prime Minister and Minister of Defence at a time when the life of the British Empire hung on a thread. I am your servant. You have the right to dismiss me when you please . . ." In the event, only 25 members were ready to take up his challenge. On the vote being taken, the Government was found to have a majority of 451.

BRITAIN'S NEW TACTICS IN AREA BOMBING, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1942

Here Captain Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., A.F.R.Ae.S., reviews events during the period in which, under Air Marshal Sir Arthur T. Harris, Bomber Command developed the concentrated attacks upon German industry and communications which dealt such heavy blows at the enemy's war machine. He also explains the policy of the United Nations in aerial warfare

Mr. Winston Churchill returned from America by air in British Overseas Airways' Boeing-built flying boat "Berwick" on January 17, 1942. From Norfolk, Virginia, he flew via Bermuda to Plymouth, England. The ocean crossing from Bermuda—3,365 miles—was completed in five minutes under 18 hours. The Prime Minister handled the controls of the flying boat himself for twenty minutes (see illus., p. 1918).

The British Prime Minister's visit to President Roosevelt was of great moment to the air war. Air Chief Marshal Sir Charles Portal (Britain's Chief of Air Staff) accompanied him. From then onwards there was close collaboration in the air between Britain and America on every fighting front. The air forces of the United Kingdom, the Dominions and those of the American Army and Navy became tactically united, working together to the common end everywhere, under the command of officers of either nation, as might be found desirable.

The forward outlook at the beginning of 1942 was brighter than it had been since the European war began, but the immediate situation was extremely difficult.

Brighter Outlook

America was not ready for war. She could not at once deploy any great forces. She had suffered a grievous blow in the Pacific by the partial or complete destruction of 177 Navy and Army aircraft at the three Hawaiian airfields of Kaneohe Bay, Hickam and Wheeler. British air strength, which had been building up steadily, suffered a severe check relative to that of the Axis by the immediate deployment of Japan's full air power. It was impossible for Britain to meet all the demands for home defence, the war at sea, the North Africa campaign, the Middle East, Russia, and the sudden emergency call for help from the Far East. There were not enough aircraft to go round, and something had to be sacrificed.

Anglo-American policy was laid down by the American President and the British Premier: the sacrifice had to be made in the Far East. Aeroplanes which were to have gone to Australia were diverted during this period to North Africa, where, at the end of June, the British Eighth Army was forced to withdraw to El Alamein after General Auchinleck's initial successful drive into Cyrenaica. This paucity of aircraft was the main factor which compelled the conflict to take the course it then did. Mr Roosevelt announced on January 6 that the aim of the American aircraft war industry was to be 60,000 aircraft in 1942 and 125,000 in 1943. (In 1942 55,000 were actually delivered.) The United States Army Air Forces were to be expanded to 1,000,000 officers and men during 1942. The United States Army Eighth Air Force was sent to the United Kingdom to join in the offensive being waged against Germany and Western Occupied Europe by the British, Dominion, Polish, and Czech squadrons operating in the Royal Air Force Fighter and Bomber Commands. The strategic bombing policy of Britain was primarily for a night campaign; that of the United States Army was for a day programme. The bombers of the U.S.A. reached England during the spring of 1942. They first went into action by bombing Rouen on August 17, 1942.



Lt.-Cmdr. EUGENE ESMONDE, V.C., D.S.O., R.N.

On February 12, 1942, he led six Swordfish aircraft (Fleet Air Arm) against the 'Scharnhorst,' 'Gneisenau' and 'Prinz Eugen' entering Dover Straits. He was shot down in the first few moments of the deadly fire encountered, but his squadron flew on to launch a gallant torpedo attack. 'His high courage and resolution,' said the citation announcing the posthumous award of the V.C., 'will live in the traditions of the Royal Navy, and remain for many generations a fine and stirring memory.'

Photo, Associated Press

The most outstanding new British aircraft was the Avro Lancaster, which had the excellent quality of ease of manufacture, and good flying characteristics. It could carry a maximum bomb load of 18,000 lb., fly at about 300 miles an hour,

Lancasters in the Front Rank

and was popular with its pilots. (See illus., p. 2098.) Though the last of the three new four-engined bombers to come into operation, its qualities brought it quickly to the front rank of heavy bombers. After a few night operations the Lancaster was mentioned in action on April 17, 1942, when No. 44 Squadron sent 12 out in daylight across France and into Germany to attack the M.A.N. factory at Augsburg in Bavaria, where *Diesel* engines for submarines were made. They flew without escort at less than 100 feet, and near Paris were engaged by German fighters. Four were shot down.

These casualties occurred in the second flight of six bombers, led by Squadron Leader J. D. Nettleton, a 25-year-old South African. With his own rear guns out of action Nettleton flew on to yet far distant Augsburg, accompanied by one other Lancaster. They came over the roof tops to their target and dropped delayed-action bombs square on the factory. The second Lancaster, hit by A.A. fire, crash-landed in flames. With his aircraft riddled with holes, Nettleton flew back to his base, sole survivor of his flight. He was awarded the Victoria Cross, the tenth air V.C. of the war, and





LUEBECK WAS THE FIRST TARGET OF THE NEW CONCENTRATED RAIDS UPON GERMAN WAR INDUSTRY

Beating down the enemy's defences instead of trying to evade them, our bombers in hundreds attacked Luebeck on the night of March 28-29, 1942. Below is an R.A.F. photograph of part of the devastated area afterwards: the distance from A to B is 1,500 yards. Top, Breitestrasse (see air view) after what the 'Hamburger Fremdenblatt' termed 'one of the most damaging attacks of the war.' Left, the Cathedral, on fire after the raid.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





Sqdrn.-Ldr. J. D. NETTLETON, V.C.
Led six Lancasters in daylight on April 17, 1942, to attack the M.A.N. Diesel works at Augsburg. All but two were shot down over enemy territory early in the flight, and his own rear guns went out of action. Reaching the target after a perilous journey at low height, the two remaining aircraft came down to roof level and dropped their bombs true on the target. One Lancaster was shot down, and only Nettleton's machine got back to its base, riddled with shellholes. He was awarded the V.C.
Drawing by Eric Kennington; Crown Copyright reserved

the ninth to the R.A.F. The other six Lancasters crossed France safely, but two were shot down over the target.

This was the first employment of British four-engined bombers to attack distant targets in Europe by daylight. Other targets were subsequently bombed, but such raids were few and far between.

Long-Range Bombing in Daylight

The Lancaster, like the Stirling and Halifax, was primarily a night bomber. Unescorted day raids by Lancasters were similar in pattern. The aircraft left their bases timed to arrive over the target just before dusk, so that there was enough light to ensure accurate flying and aiming, and after that the cover of night in which to return.

The American day raids which began towards the end of this period were of a different pattern, the Fortress bombers going out in the late morning and coming back again in time for tea. The Fortress II, equipped with 12 long-range half-inch machine-guns, could shoot its way through enemy formations of fighters. The big British bombers, armed only with rifle-calibre machine-guns, were less able to defend themselves, for the German fighters remained beyond the range of the small machine-guns and fired at the British bombers with their cannon.

The British bombers were designed to achieve their maximum speed at about 18,000 feet, a useful night compromise. But, in daylight, anti-aircraft gunfire was both accurate and strong at that height. It was mainly to avoid anti-aircraft fire that the bombers hedge-hopped to their targets. The American bombers had been intended for day operations, were fitted with special engines and airscrews, and designed to fly at 25,000 to 30,000 feet, where the gunfire was much less concentrated and less accurate. But it was necessary to carry guns to beat off fighters, and owing to the weight of their heavier armament, the American bombers transported a considerably smaller bomb-load than the British machines.

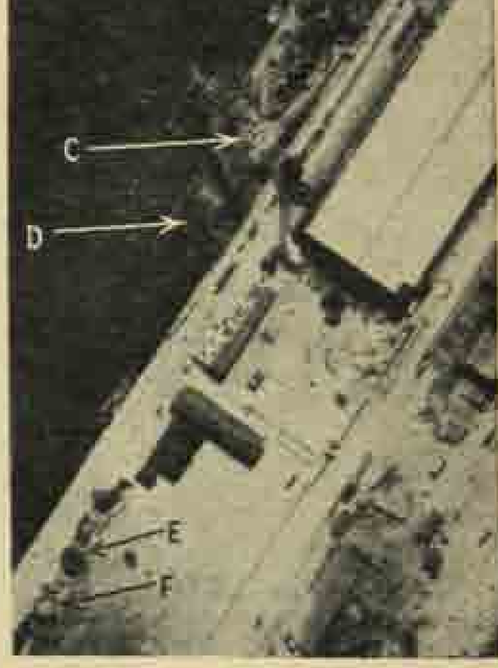
The British four-engined bombers, capable of concentrating a very heavy weight of bombs upon one target, enabled new tactics in area bombing to be initiated. Air Marshal Arthur T. Harris (he was made K.C.B. in June) brought this form of attack to a high state of development after his appointment to command Bomber Command on February 20, 1942. He was a great believer in bombing the Boche. He was also well aware of the growing power of defence against the night bomber—the increase in A.A. fire-power and the growing efficiency of night fighters. Successful night air attack became a problem of beating down the defences, not one of attempting to evade them. The operation required most precise staff work to secure the greatest possible concentration of bombers over the desired target. In consequence, "air lanes" from the bases in the United Kingdom to the selected target were worked out, and bombers were allotted exact time-schedules, flying heights, and routes.

With hundreds of bombers streaming in upon the target from several directions it would be extremely difficult for acoustic or radio locating apparatus to pick out one approaching aircraft from another for the gunners. Moreover, when the weight of bombs began to fall, the ground counter-defences and civil defence services would be so pounded as to reduce their efficiency. Simultaneously with this development came new and larger bombs—4,000-lb. and 8,000-lb. missiles—with a deadlier shock and blast effect.

One of the earliest of the new pattern raids was the attack upon Lübeck on the night of March 28–29. A large area of the city was gutted by fire and explosions. Then followed the April 1 raid on the Matford works at Poissy (when 4,000-lb. bombs were used); raids on the Ruhr and Rhine and other industrial targets; and against shipping bases — Hamburg, Wilhelmshaven, Emden, Kiel—designed to hamper the German war effort on and under the sea. Next came the great mass raids, first against Cologne on the night of May 30–31, when 1,130 bombers attacked in 95 minutes; on the Essen area of the Ruhr on the night of June 1–2, when 1,036 bombers were used; and yet again on the night of June 25–26, when more than a thousand bombers were directed against Bremen. From 1,000 to 1,500 tons of bombs were dropped on each of these three raids.

All concentrated raids (the smaller ones and the larger) were made possible by the employment of "pathfinder" aircraft. The pathfinders were manned by specialist navigator crews to whom was entrusted the task of finding the target and lighting it up with flares and bombs. The crews of the bombers approaching the target were able to see the lights and fly straight towards them. (The first pathfinder aircraft were machines of the Fleet Air Arm,

'GNEISENAU' AT GDYNIA
After her flight from Brest on February 12, 1942 the German battleship made her way to the Polish Baltic port of Gdynia, where she was photographed by the R.A.F. Extensive repair work is in progress: (A) Turret missing; its base is at (E), and the ball bearings on which it turns are at (F). Another turret, from which the guns have been removed, is seen at (B), and a third at (C); armour, too, is missing from the latter. (D), camouflage around the stern.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





BOMBER COMMAND

Air Marshal Sir Arthur T. Harris (he received the K.C.B. in June 1942) was appointed to command Bomber Command in February 1942. He developed the concentrated attack on German war industry and transport which reached its climax in May and June with the thousand-bomber raids on Cologne, Essen and Bremen.

Photo, Fox

whose flares lit up targets for R.A.F. bombers in the Mediterranean theatre of war.)

There was something cheering to the people of Coventry, London, Manchester, Plymouth, Hull and other previously bombed British cities in the thought of the thousand-bomber raids. Here was retribution for what the Luftwaffe had done to them. They looked for more raids of this magnitude. What had happened? they asked, when the thousand-bomber raids did not continue. The answer is that these great raids were an experiment, a test of staff method, aircrew operational efficiency, and at the same time a means to bring to bear upon Germany a severe blow, right in the heart of the main submarine manufacturing centres. For this purpose aircraft not normally available to Bomber Command were pressed into service. Aircraft and crews from Coastal Command and Operational Training Units participated, some of the latter making their first action flight over enemy territory. The scale of the attacks could not be kept up because there were not aircraft available to make them. The demands from all the other war fronts were increasing, and Bomber Command had to suffer in consequence. The strength of Bomber Command increased by only 10 per cent during the whole of 1942.

Light on 1000-Bomber Raids

On the other hand, the increasing number of four-engined bombers coming into service scaled-up the weight of bombs that could be dropped, because they carried heavier loads. Well within a year after the thousand-bomber raids attacks by 300 and 400 four-engined aircraft were unloading about 900 to 1,000 tons of bombs over one target, and these the more distant targets, too, such as Berlin.

In what the German Government stated were reprisals for the R.A.F. raids on German industrial centres the Luftwaffe began a series of attacks (called Baedeker raids, from the name of the German guide-book) against cathedral cities of England. Exeter was selected for one such raid on the night of April 24–25. About 30 bombers tore the heart of Exeter into rubble and flames and reduced the beautiful old High Street (after the débris had been cleared away) to an open space and, on either side of the roadway, to naked earth. The Cathedral (just off the High Street) was damaged, but not destroyed. There could be no claim that any industrial or war objective was sought. It was the vandal destruction of what the Germans themselves call "cultural monuments" that was intended; and that alone was fulfilled. It was the same at Bath, Norwich and York.

After the thousand-bomber raid on Cologne the Germans retaliated with another Baedeker raid upon Canterbury, the city in whose neighbourhood had fallen the first bombs to drop on the British mainland in this war. Twenty of the raiders were destroyed, eleven over Britain and nine over the Continent. The destruction of enemy raiders over Western Europe had by now become a part of Fighter Command's policy. Realizing how short a time German bombers remained over Britain, especially when attacking targets close to the coast, Air Chief Marshal Sir W. Sholto Douglas, C.-in-C. Fighter Command, instituted "intruder" aircraft operations. These intruder fighters flew to the neighbourhood of German air bases from which the bombers came, and there awaited their return. (Sometimes they caught them coming out.) A proportionately large number of German bombers was destroyed or badly damaged in this way. As with the bomber war, the fighter war was carried into the enemy camp.

Fighter aircraft carried the war into the air over the enemy-occupied territory by day, providing escort for short-range bomber attacks, then mostly made by Bostons or Hurricane fighter-bombers. They flew over the zone which could be penetrated by Spitfire, Whirlwind and Hurricane fighters—that was from about Flushing to Cherbourg, and inland, at the deepest, to about 50 miles. They attacked coastal vessels, road transport, railway locomotives and trains, canal barges, troops' billets, gunposts, everything and anything that offered a target to their machine-guns or cannon. (The Hurricane IIc then carried four 20-millimetre cannon-guns, or 12 Browning machine-

Widespread Fighter Offensives



REAR-GUNNER OF A BRITISH HEAVY BOMBER

In readiness for an operational trip, his equipment comprises: (1) helmet with earphones; (2) oxygen mask and microphone; the cable for intercommunication between crew is (4), and the tube to the oxygen supply is (3). Parachute gear comprises dog-clips (5) for the chest-type pack and the quick-release box (8) on the parachute harness (9). For support if he comes down into the sea he wears the 'Mae West' or air-inflated life-jacket (6); the tape ties are seen in (7). His leather jacket is lined with lambswool and has a fur collar (10).

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



RENAULT WORKS AT BILLANCOURT, PARIS

Aero engines, tanks and motor vehicles were being made in large quantities for the Germans at the Renault and Farman works on the outskirts of Paris. This R.A.F. photograph shows the damage done by the British bombing raid in daylight on March 3, 1942. (A) indicates a damaged gasholder of large size which has collapsed. Wrecked tanks in the assembly shops and yard are at (B). This was a very successful operation carried out at low cost.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright

guns. The Spitfire VB carried two cannon and four machine-guns. The Whirlwind carried four cannon.)

The fighter-bomber was first developed by the R.A.F. in the last summer of the First Great War. In the Second Great War it was first employed by the Luftwaffe during the Battle of Britain. Its value lies in the great manoeuvrability and speed of the fighter, a combination which enables it to swoop upon its target at a very low level and aim the bomb almost as a fast bowler delivers his ball at the wickets. The bomb falls downwards and forwards, and hits the target with a high forward velocity—more like a bullet than a bomb. When used against ships, the bomb may hit the side of the hull and penetrate, or strike an obstruction in the superstructure. On land, after hitting a building the bomb may go right into it through the wall, and then explode after a brief delay of perhaps three seconds—just long enough for the bomber to fly on out of the danger zone of its own missile. For the bomb, in its short free flight, travels forward almost at the same speed as the aircraft, and hits almost at the moment the bomber passes over the target.

Origin of the Fighter-Bomber

When the bomb has been released the machine becomes a pure fighter—fast, manoeuvrable, well-armed, able to take quick evasive action or to fight in self-defence or in offence. The bomb may fall flat on the surface it strikes, and rebound into the air. Bouncing bombs have sometimes jumped over three houses before their delayed-action fuse exploded them. Sometimes they have almost jumped up and hit the fighter they came from. But in spite of these incalculable errors the fighter-bomber has proved a deadly weapon: against small ships, or armies in the field, and for all air bombing work by day, where low flying is an advantage either to avoid gunfire or to put the bomb down in an otherwise awkward place.

The air now played an increasingly important part in the war at sea. Aircraft operated from the United Kingdom, Iceland, Newfoundland, the United States seaboard, and West Africa to provide air cover over the Atlantic. U-boats were driven farther out into mid-Atlantic, beyond the range of patrolling aircraft from all bases. In this area protection was afforded mainly by escort vessels, and there the submarines collected in packs. During the first three months after America's entry into the war, and before anti-submarine measures were fully organized within the new sea zones, heavy sinkings were effected by the enemy in the Caribbean Sea and surrounding waters. (*See* Chapter 209.) Coastal Command received more powerful types of aircraft and became a complete air force within the R.A.F. The short-range Ansons, which had done useful work in close patrols, were replaced by long-range four-engined Liberators and Halifax bombers. The Command also utilized Whitley, Wellington and Hampden

bombers, in addition to marine aircraft such as the Sunderland and Catalina flying boats, the Hudson reconnaissance aircraft, and the Beaufort torpedo-bomber. The latest types of fighter, Spitfires, Hurricanes, and Beaufighters—the last with three cannon and four machine-guns—were employed to protect convoys against air attack during the approach to United Kingdom ports.

The Luftwaffe used aircraft to protect submarines leaving and entering the U-boat bases in Western Europe. Air battles took place over the Bay of Biscay and off the Norwegian coast. German long-range reconnaissance aircraft, principally the Focke-Wulf Kurier four-engined landplane, scouted over the oceans seeking targets for the U-boats; they were attacked whenever encountered. Submarine bases became high-priority targets in the list for Bomber Command. Heavy attacks were maintained against St. Nazaire and Lorient, while Rostock was mass-raided during the four nights following April 23.

The most remarkable episode in the air war at sea was the break-out of the battleships "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" and the heavy cruiser "Prinz Eugen" from Brest on February 11. The warships—battered from the air at frequent intervals while dry-docked or berthed at Brest, the port into which they had slipped to escape the wrath at sea—were useless to the German navy. As fast as they were repaired they were bombed again. For ten months the R.A.F. kept them bottled up. Eleven months after his courageous torpedo attack on April 6, 1941 (in a Beaufort), upon one warship moored within the mole at Brest, Flying Officer Kenneth Campbell, of Coastal Command, was posthumously awarded the Victoria Cross. He did not return from the flight, and it took all those months to piece the story together. Skimming just above the flak ships, Campbell torpedoed the warship below the water-line. She had to be returned to the dry-dock whence she had come only the day before (see illus., p. 1931).

For their dash up Channel the three German warships slipped out of port in the dark. The weather was bad, and the regular British morning reconnaissance over Brest was not possible. The ships were first sighted accidentally, by patrolling fighters, when they were approaching the narrows of the Dover Strait. Under a tough air umbrella of German fighters they moved as fast as they could, close to the French coast, their speed being about 20 knots. As soon as the discovery was made an attack was prepared. Six Fleet Air Arm Swordfish torpedo-reconnaissance-bombers flew out under Lieut.-Commander A. Eugene Esmonde, D.S.O.,



Flying Officer L. T. MANSER, V.C.

Captain of a Manchester in the mass raid on Cologne, May 30–31, 1942, though caught by searchlights and intense A.A. fire he pressed on to bomb the target. On the return his aircraft was set on fire; though the blaze was put out the machine lost height and a crash became inevitable. Manser ordered the crew to bale out while he kept the bomber steady; after this, with Manser still at the controls, the aircraft plunged down and burst into flames. In October 1942 a posthumous V.C. was gazetted.

Photo, G.P.U.

RESULT OF THE 'REPRISAL' RAID ON CANTERBURY

On the night after our thousand-bomber raid on Cologne (May 30–31, 1942) the Germans retaliated with an attack on Canterbury; eleven of the raiders were brought down over Britain and another nine destroyed over the Continent. This photograph, taken after some demolition and clearance, shows the Cathedral from the south, beyond the ruins of houses and shops in Burgate Street (bombed on October 26, 1940). (See also colour plate f.p. 2114). *Photo, Topical Press*



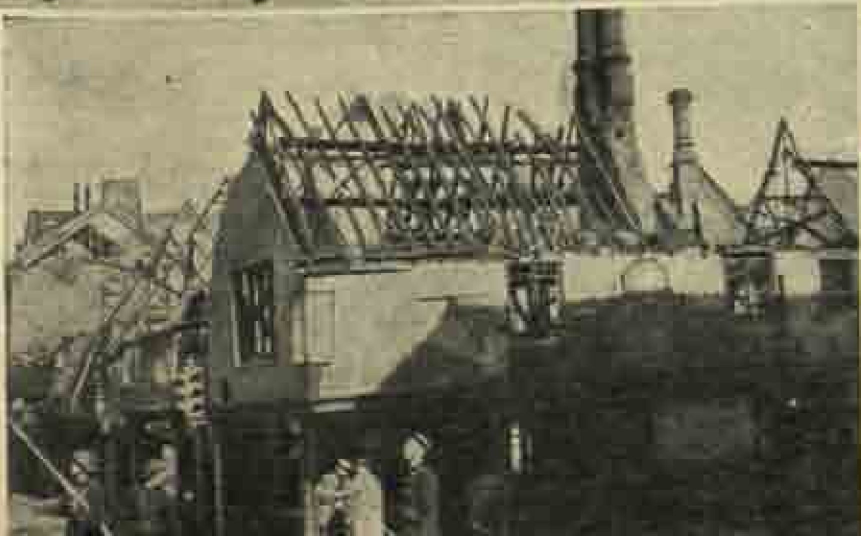




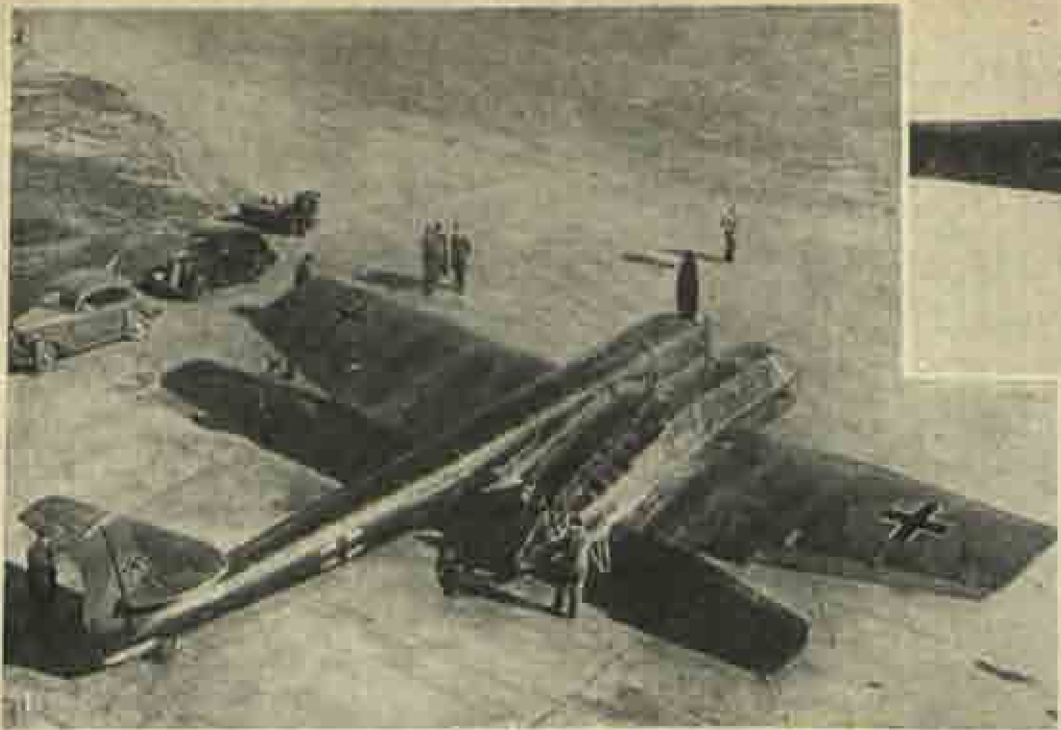
THE 'BAEDEKER' RAIDS

Following the heavy R.A.F. raids on Rostock and Cologne at the end of April 1942, German officials said that in reprisal the Luftwaffe would now go out for every building starred in Baedeker's guides, while the 'Boersen Zeitung' gloated over damage to such buildings at Bath and Exeter. Top, York station (April 28–29); centre, left, west portico of the Assembly Rooms at Bath—Bath chair in foreground (April, nights of 25 and 26); lower left, the ancient Boar's Head Inn, Norwich (April 27–28); lower right, in Exeter Cathedral, where damage to St. James's Chapel is seen (April 24–25). (See also illus., p. 2134.)

Photos, Oswald Wild; Associated Press; Keystone; E. W. Tattersall















NEW TYPES EMPLOYED BY THE LUFTWAFFE

In Russia the Germans used the Blohm & Voss 141, seen on the ground in (1) and in flight in (2). The engine is on the port wing, while the cabin for a crew of three is on the starboard. The Focke-Wulf FW-190, shown in (3) and (5), came into service at the end of 1941; a fast fighter, designed around the engine (a B.M.W. 14-cyl. twin-row radial) and armament (four cannon and two machine-guns). The Blohm & Voss HA-38 seaplane (4) has compression-ignition engines—three Junkers-Juno 205C 12-cylinder. The top speed is about 170 m.p.h. and the range 2,400 miles.

Photos, P. N. A.; Sport & General; Associated Press; G. P. U.

R.N., escorted by 50 fighters. They attacked the enemy in the face of a furious anti-aircraft gun barrage; no Swordfish returned; five survivors were picked up. Lieut.-Commander Esmonde was posthumously awarded the Victoria Cross, the first to be won by the Fleet Air Arm in this war. Four officer survivors were awarded the D.S.O., and the naval airman who was saved received the Conspicuous Gallantry Medal. Eleven members of the squadron who did not return were mentioned in dispatches, and it was said of them: "Theirs was the courage which is beyond praise."

Coastal Command Beauforts claimed three torpedo hits. Fighter-bombers and fighters attacked the escort vessels. Blenheims, Halifaxes, Hampdens, Manchesters, Stirlings and Wellingtons of Bomber and Coastal Command attacked, but were handicapped by bad weather. They had to drop their bombs from a height in order to get the necessary bomb velocity, but gained only an occasional sight of the vessels through gaps in the clouds. Conditions were almost impossible for our bombers, so mines were laid ahead of the ships. The enemy were later located in Wilhelmshaven, Kiel, and Trondheim, and had suffered damage. In the air-sea action the R.A.F. lost 20 bombers and 16 fighters, and claimed the destruction of 18 enemy fighters. The battleships were again pounded in their new bases by Bomber Command. On May 17 the "Prinz Eugen" was intercepted en route from Trondheim to Kiel by 50 Hudsons, Beaufighters, and Beauforts, and again damaged.

Meanwhile in the Far East Japanese forces gained victory after victory. Singapore fell on February 15. The loss of Upper Burma and the Dutch East Indies followed. Everywhere the United Nations were outnumbered in the air, and the enemy's air weapon cut through their defences with appalling speed. Air raids began against Northern Australia on April 4; Colombo was raided on April 5; India's first air raids occurred on the 6th; Trincomalee naval base was raided three days later. During this aggressive action Japanese carrier-borne aircraft sank the cruisers "Devonshire" and "Cornwall" and the aircraft carrier "Hermes" near Ceylon. Corregidor, mercilessly dive-bombed and shelled, surrendered to the Japanese on May 5.

The United Nations stood with their backs to Australia, hitting out with aircraft at the Japanese invaders of the islands to the immediate north. Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobe, Osaka and Nagoya were bombed on April 18 by Mitchell bombers led by Major-General



CURTIS KITTYHAWK AS A FIGHTER-BOMBER

The American Kittyhawk is comparable with our Spitfire in performance, and numbers have been in service with the R.A.F. in Libya. Adapted to carry light bombs ("Kittybomber"), it proved of special value against the Germans. Here R.A.F. armourers are attaching bombs before a raid from an advanced aerodrome in the Western Desert.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





PHILIPPINES RAIDED BY AUSTRALIA-BASED AIRCRAFT

On April 13–14, 1942, Brig.-General Ralph Royce, U.S. Army Air Force (inset), led 13 American bombers in a flight from Australia to attack Japanese bases in the Philippines (see page 2093). The squadron comprised three Flying Fortresses of the type seen above, and ten B-25s. Shipping at Manila, Cebu, Davao and Batangas was bombed, and a number of American and Filipino personnel picked up.

Photos, Associated Press; Pictorial Press





DOOLITTLE TAKES OFF TO BOMB TOKYO

Major-General James H. Doolittle led the squadron of American Mitchell medium bombers which flew from the aircraft carrier 'Hornet' a distance of 800 miles to bomb the Japanese capital on April 18, 1942. Besides Tokyo they attacked Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobe, and Osaka. Out of 80 airmen taking part 64 made their way to Free China, eight were taken prisoner in Japan (some put to death), five were interned in Russia, where one aircraft made a forced landing, two were missing and one was killed. Right, President Roosevelt decorates Major-General Doolittle with the Congressional Medal of Honor; left to right: Lt.-Gen. Arnold, Chief of U.S. Army Air Forces; Mrs. Doolittle; General Doolittle.

Photos. Keystone; Topical Press

James H. Doolittle, former Schneider Trophy winner, to whom President Roosevelt later presented the Congressional Medal of Honor. A year after, on the anniversary of the raid, it was made known that the aircraft had taken off from the carrier "Hornet," which took them to within 800 miles of Tokyo. After bombing objectives in Tokyo and other cities the aircraft could not reach chosen landing grounds in China, as had been intended. One landed in Russian territory, while others came down in China or in Chinese waters. Of 80 men taking part in the operation, five were interned in Russia; eight were made prisoner in Japan and suffered punishment (some being executed); two were missing and one was killed. The other 64 made their way to Chinese army camps and thence back to American territory. In the original plans the carrier was to have gone 400 miles nearer the Japanese capital, but it ran into enemy forces at 800 miles away and there was a fear that its object had been detected by the Japanese.

On April 21, 1943, a White House statement announced that nine days earlier a protest had been lodged with the Japanese Government against the punishment of the crews of two American bombers captured by the Japanese on the alleged grounds that the men had intentionally bombed non-military installations and had fired on civilians. The U.S.A branded these charges as false, and announced that it would hold personally and officially responsible officers of the Japanese Government who participated in the punishment of the American aviators. Japan was solemnly warned that for any other violations of her undertaking regarding prisoners of war, or for any other acts of criminal barbarity inflicted upon American prisoners, the American Government would visit upon the Japanese Government responsible the punishment they deserved.

By seizing the aerodromes, British carrier-borne aircraft played a great part in the initial landing operations in Madagascar in May. On June 4 the battle of Midway Island began; it ended in an overwhelming defeat for the Japanese navy by American air power, without a single shot being fired from a gun. This air success removed from Hawaii the threat of invasion. The United Nations were beginning to hit back in the Far East.

In the Mediterranean, Fleet Air Arm and R.A.F. aircraft were constantly engaged. The introduction of the Kittybomber into the desert war began that fighter-bomber-army cooperation which was to mean so much to subsequent victories; the air attack assisted in delaying Rommel's advance into Egypt during Auchinleck's withdrawal to El Alamein. Malta, awarded the George Cross by the King on April 16, had more than 2,390 alerts by the end of June. Having started its own defence with three Gladiator fighters—called Faith, Hope and Charity—it was now hitting back with increasing force.

The R.A.F. Regt. was formed on January 8, 1942; the Army Air Corps and Glider Pilot Regt. on February 27.

The shape of things perhaps to come was seen in the combined attack upon Bruneval, near Le Havre, on February 27. The radiolocation station was wrecked, and the coast defences overcome from the rear by British parachute-troops, dropped from Whitley bombers in their first action in northern Europe.

And by the middle of 1942 the turning point in the air war in favour of the United Nations was reached. Plans to evacuate Ceylon, announced on March 12, proved unnecessary. The Australian Government's early fear that Northern Australia would have to be evacuated became (with American and Australian forces united under General MacArthur) a resolve to counter-attack the Japanese invaders of New Guinea. The successful air-sea battle of the Coral Sea, fought in the first half of May 1942, frustrated the Japanese attempt to invade Queensland. The tempo of air war in the Pacific swiftened. Our retention of Port Moresby as an advanced base became the most important factor in the Australasian war zone.

U-BOAT ATTACK SWITCHED TO THE WESTERN ATLANTIC

The entry of the United States into full belligerency, while it mobilized untold industrial resources for the cause of the United Nations, brought them the aid of a large and efficient air arm and promised that of a huge army, involved at the outset large shipping losses as Axis submarines turned on the freighters of our Ally. The setbacks and achievements of the first six months of 1942 are here reviewed

"The U.S. people no longer wondered whether the U.S. was in. They wondered now whether the U.S. was winning." That statement was made by a responsible American journal in November 1941—just one month before the Japanese launched their surprise attack on the Pacific naval base at Pearl Harbour. It referred not to the war as a whole but to the war at sea, and particularly to the Battle of the Atlantic. It serves to underline the gradual but steadily increasing participation of the U.S. naval and air forces in clearing the enemy, in President Roosevelt's words, from "waters the protection of which is necessary for American defence"—waters that stretched as far as Iceland. That phase of the Atlantic Battle is reviewed in Chapter 190. It was a successful phase which offered substantial promise that the tide had at last turned. Then came the final "show-down": America was at war with Japan, Germany, Italy and their satellites.

It is necessary to bear in mind the statement quoted above in order to appreciate the turn of events; a sudden, alarming rise in Allied shipping losses. The United States' entry into the war, with the whole of her substantial Navy now thrown into the struggle, did not bring about an improvement in the defensive war on the trade routes. The result was a weakening and not a strengthening of the Allied "lines" on this front, at a time when the front itself became suddenly far wider, encompassing not only the mid-Atlantic shipping routes but the whole of the North American seaboard. To the attackers, principally German submarines, the area for marauding operations had spread wide—an unqualified advantage—and the targets had doubled. This on the one hand. On the other the United States Navy had not only to meet the substantial threat of Japanese sea power in the Pacific to the best of her ability, but, at Pearl Harbour, had already sustained devastating losses in that single, treacherous blow. The balance of power had been violently tilted, and it was inevitable that the Atlantic front should suffer from the reorientation of forces—for Britain also had to reinforce her inadequate squadrons in the Far East.

Rise in Allied Shipping Losses

America's full entry into the war meant the mobilization of untold industrial resources, a huge army, a large and efficient air arm. It contained the assurance of final victory, but it also marked one more switch in the fortunes plotted on the graph of shipping losses. The Americans were not prepared for war on their doorstep. The first merchant ship losses were reported from the Pacific, for on December 22, 1941, it was announced that the steamer "Lahaina" had been shelled by a submarine and sunk 11 days previously between Hawaii and San Francisco. Two ships had been attacked "off the coast of California."

On December 17 the "Manini" and "Prusa" were sunk in the Pacific. A few days later the tanker "Emidio" was torpedoed within sight of watchers ashore. Another tanker, the "Montebello," was sunk about the same time. Towards the middle of January 1942 the scene shifted to the Atlantic coast. A Panamanian ship was torpedoed 60 miles off Long Island. Four American ships, two of them tankers, were sunk "off the East



TRAINING GUNNERS FOR OUR MERCHANT SHIPS

Maritime Regiments of the Royal Artillery were formed in the summer of 1940 to man the guns on merchantmen against air attack. Here a number of men are learning the use of sights. They wear the familiar khaki uniform with a shoulder badge bearing an anchor and the letters A.A.

(See Colour Plate facing page 2115 for detail.)

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





U-BOATS ATTACK CURACAO AND ARUBA

The Dutch West Indian Islands of Curaçao and Aruba, a few miles off the coast of Venezuela, contain the largest oil-refining plant in the world. On account of the deep-water anchorage here crude oil is brought in tankers from Venezuela for refining, the output normally being 480,000 barrels daily. The islands were shelled and tankers attacked by enemy submarines in February 1942. Top, a tanker off Curaçao after being torpedoed; below, a torpedo found on the beach at Aruba: later, while being dismantled, it exploded and killed four persons

Photos, Paul Popper; Keystone

Coast" within a day or two, some of the attacks apparently having been made audaciously close to American shores.

Farther out to sea, at night time, a U-boat surfaced about 100 yards from the "Lady Hawkins," a passenger liner belonging to the Canadian National Steamship Company. The submarine gave no warning, but fired two torpedoes. The "Lady Hawkins" heeled over and sank. There were 212 passengers and 109 crew on board. It was dark; there was no time to launch some of the lifeboats, and two others were smashed. Seventy-six passengers and crew crowded into one of the boats, which set sail for land. They were rescued five days later—but not all of them; five of that crowded company of men, women and children had died.

February saw an intensification of the attacks off the Atlantic coast. The largest cargo ship in the world, the Swedish ore carrier "Amerikaland," was torpedoed with the loss of over 20 lives. The steamer "Sangil" and the tankers "India Arrow," "Rochester," "China Arrow," "W. L. Steed," "Republic," "Thalia," "La Carriere" and "Cities Service Empire" were among those reported sunk. Between mid-January and mid-February 25 ships had been sunk in these waters. It was evident the Germans were concentrating their efforts against tankers carrying oil northwards from the Gulf ports and the West Indies. Off the entrance to the Gulf of Venezuela is the Dutch West Indian island of Aruba, where there are huge oil refineries. At 1.30 a.m. on February 16, 1942, a submarine, lying less than a mile off shore, opened fire on the refineries. Seven tankers in the vicinity were attacked and three of them sunk. This was the prelude to many U-boat attacks in the Caribbean area, over 4,000 miles from the U-boat base at Brest. By February 23, it was announced, 114 ships had been attacked in the Western Atlantic. On the other hand, 56 attacks had been made on enemy submarines, but only three were definitely known to have been sunk.

Sinkings off U.S. Eastern Seaboard

These losses on the eastern seaboard of America, said the First Lord of the Admiralty some months later, "proved a grievous drain on the tonnage available to the United Nations." At times they were as much as three-quarters of the total tonnage sunk. Towards the end of February the Prime Minister confirmed the truth of the story told by unofficial Press reports. During the past two months there had, he said, been a "most serious increase in shipping losses." Part of this increase was due of course to the fact that new waters were involved, for the Pacific sinkings were by no means insignificant to begin with. But this theatre soon became the battleground for more essentially military operations than were seen in the Atlantic. This was not the slow, steady, threatening war of attrition—the desperate effort to sever the economic arteries that stretched across the Atlantic, round the Cape of Good Hope and through the Arctic to Russia. It was a battle of changing tempo; of swift advances by sea and land that occasionally swept up a harbour half full of merchant ships; the sinking of military transport ships and the disorderly ships retreating from Singapore—a battle of sudden surprises. It was the scene of the great air-naval battles of the Coral Sea and Midway which, by the end of June 1942, had halted the sensational progress of Japan. The chief menace was still hidden in the green waters of the Atlantic—occasionally revealed by the huge bubbles of air and swirl of oil that sometimes followed the explosion of a depth charge.

The month of March saw no diminution in the heavy Atlantic and Caribbean sinkings. Coastal defence









GRIEVOUS DRAIN ON SHIPPING TONNAGE

U-boat activities off the eastern seaboard of North America early in 1942 caused a serious loss to the United Nations, amounting at times to three-quarters of the total shipping casualties. Here are typical incidents of the grim warfare. (1) Circling around a sunken American freighter, a U.S. patrol vessel searches for the U-boat. (2) Survivors from a merchantman torpedoed 160 miles off Halifax, N.S., are hauled aboard H.M.C.S. 'Red Deer,' a Canadian minesweeper; in (3) is seen a Chinese seaman, unconscious from exposure. (4) Norwegian tanker 'Varanger' sinking off the New Jersey coast, not far from Atlantic City. All the crew were rescued.

Photos, Keystone; Associated Press



BLIMPS PROTECT AMERICAN SHIPPING FROM U-BOATS

Small airships such as this one from the United States Naval Base at Lakehurst (N.J.) cruised slowly on patrol over the Atlantic routes, spotting and giving warning of submarines and mines. They carried depth charges with which to attack enemy underwater craft, and supplemented the routine patrols carried out by naval craft and aeroplanes. *Photo, Keystone*

patrols were considerably strengthened in an effort to provide protected "lanes" for the shipping traffic sailing north and south past Cape Hatteras. Air protection was increased; safe night anchorage provided. Small airships ("blimps") cruised over the water at slow speeds, dropping depth charges when a U-boat was spotted. The sinkings fell off for a time, but in May the U.S. authorities were reluctantly forced to adopt the convoy system along the eastern seaboard. This meant a serious reduction in carrying power because of delays, slower speeds and port difficulties. But it was eventually proved to be the solution to the very serious menace in these waters.

Many anti-submarine vessels, including the ubiquitous corvettes, were sent from Britain to help the U.S. Navy in its new task, and others under construction were earmarked for America. Planes and pilots of the Coastal Command brought the benefits of long experience in U-boat hunting.

In the Western Atlantic the Germans scored by the concentration of shipping and by America's unpreparedness, which was manifested in one way by the shortage of escort vessels. But there was another purpose in the German policy. It was intended also to frighten the South American neutrals, to impress them with German strength and American weakness, and to discourage assistance to the United States. U-boats made no attempt to discriminate between neutral and belligerent targets.

At the beginning of February Brazil took over 96,000 tons of Axis shipping sheltering in Brazilian ports. On February 15 the passenger and cargo vessel "Buarque" was torpedoed off the Atlantic coast; it was night-time and the Brazilian flag painted on the side was floodlit. This was the first attack against the shipping of Brazil, and many others followed—the "Olinda," sunk by shellfire a few days later; the "Arabutan," torpedoed early in March; the "Cabedello" in April; the "Parnahyba" and "Goncalves Dias" in May, and the "Comandante Lyra," which reached port after being torpedoed. Brazil replied by requisitioning six laid-up Danish ships and by attacking the U-boats from the air.

Germany's policy failed with Brazil, which in July declared war on the Axis. Attacks were also made on Argentine ships, including the tanker "Victoria" and the former Italian steamer "Rio Tercero," both followed by "profound regrets" from the German Government. The Government of Argentina took no action apart from protests. Uruguayan, Venezuelan, Chilian and Mexican ships were also sunk, with results which were hardly according to the Axis plans. On May 28 President Camacho said that Germany's sinking of two neutral Mexican tankers "in a cowardly ambush" had compelled Mexico to defend her honour. A state of war was declared.

Serious Caribbean Situation

The effect of the adoption of convoys along the Atlantic seaboard was partly to divert even greater numbers of U-boats to the Caribbean Sea, the Gulf of Mexico and the South Atlantic. Though the efficiency of the defence of these coastal waters was improving as more escort ships became available, and was to improve further, sinkings were still on a serious level in June 1942. On the 23rd—a day that was spent, in Washington, in urgent conference by shipping and naval experts summoned by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt—it was reported that 13 ships had been sunk in the Caribbean area in 12 days, and that losses in the Western Atlantic since December 7 (most of them since the turn of the year) amounted to 290 ships—130 off the U.S. east coast, 108 in the Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico, 35 off Canada and 17 off South America. The actual losses were not revealed, although renewed demands in the British Parliament and the Press were made for a resumption of the publication of shipping losses in some form. "As for the public," The Times remarked, ". . . the lack of knowledge must blunt the edge of its appreciation of the quintessential importance of the sea in the scheme of victory."

The crucial position of merchant ships in this general scheme is emphasized by three factors: (1) success in the U-boat blockade represented the Nazis' only hope of withstanding the mounting strength of the United Nations; (2) that strength could be coordinated and brought to bear where and when it would be most effective only by means of merchant ships; (3) in the immediate military sphere, merchant ships were vital to the sustenance of the Middle East armies, to the building up of forces



COLOGNE AFTER THE 1,000-BOMBER RAID OF MAY 30-31, 1942

Actually 1,130 R.A.F. bombers took part in this great attack, which lasted 95 minutes; 44 machines were lost. Two thousand tons of bombs were dropped, and an area of 5,000 acres, including the heart of the great Rhine city, was left in ruins. The Cathedral escaped. Cologne is a great industrial and railway centre, with large chemical and engineering works, rubber plants and machine-tool shops.

Photo, British Official, Crown Copyright



MEN AND WOMEN SHARE OUR ANTI-AIRCRAFT DEFENCE

Top, A.T.S. girls take part in a realistic exercise in which tear gas is used and all gas precautions are taken; here, muffled up in anti-gas clothing and masked, they are operating a predictor and range-finder. The first of the Mixed Batteries (men and women working together) went into operation at a gun site near London in the late summer of 1941. Below, one of London's powerful defence batteries on the alert.

Photos, Planet News; Fox





DESTRUCTION OF THE MEDIEVAL GUILDHALL AT YORK

York was attacked on the night of April 28-29 by 20 German bombers, five of which were destroyed. Only the four walls of the Gothic Guildhall were left after the fire which followed the bombing, here seen at its height. During the period April 24-29, 1942, Exeter, Bath (twice), Norwich and York had been bombed in what the Germans called reprisal raids. There was a heavy casualty list in April: 938 killed and 998 injured and detained in hospital.

Photo, Keystone



BOMB THAT MISSED THE ROYAL CRESCENT, BATH

Bath was the second target of the so-called 'Baedeker' raids made by the Luftwaffe in 'reprisal' for R.A.F. raids on Luebeck and Rostock. Fifty German bombers were engaged on the night of April 25-26, 1942, and 30 the following night; five and three of the enemy were destroyed. The old Assembly Rooms (see illus., p. 2123) were burned down and nine churches were damaged, besides Bath Abbey. Other historic buildings also suffered.

Photo, Oswald Wild



AMERICAN MERCHANTMAN BRINGS SUPPLIES TO ALEXANDRIA

Besides new merchant ships built to British orders the U.S.A. constructed large numbers for her own use under the emergency programme to make up for losses sustained by submarine attack. Combined Boards decided the priorities for cargoes and destinations, just as other Boards adjusted production between the two countries, and a joint Middle East Supply Centre was established to reduce the demands on shipping still further. A new American freighter enters the port at Alexandria with supplies. *Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright*

in the Pacific theatre and to the maintenance of the supply routes to Russia, feeding the main fighting front. In short, in President Roosevelt's words, "the battle of production" was already on the way to being won; "the battle of distribution" was at a critical stage.

The answer also to these problems was threefold: to defeat the U-boat or blunt its power by stronger and more effective naval and other action; to increase the output of new merchant shipping, which did not yet even equal the tonnage being sunk; and to put each ton of existing shipping to the utmost effective use. Those were the three facets of a single task. The answers were sought in many ways subsidiary to the main sea struggle. At the beginning of March it was stated that Britain's food imports were to be reduced, and later the milling of white flour was prohibited. The introduction of the "national loaf"—in which a greater percentage of the milled grain was used, including parts formerly classed as offals—meant a saving of between 500,000 and 600,000 tons of cargo space annually.

Threefold Problem

In other ways the demands on shipping were reduced. It was mainly with this end in view that, under the initiative of the Ministry of War Transport, there had been set up what was known as the "Middle East Supply Centre." Its task was to supply the civilian needs of 50 million people living in an area of 2,500,000 square miles, which included Egypt, Turkey, Palestine, Syria, Cyprus and half a dozen other territories formerly supplied largely by Mediterranean shipping. The aim was to make the area as a whole as self-supporting as possible, and in every other way to reduce the demand on ships that were needed to bring troops and war weapons round the long Cape route to the desert army defending Egypt, the Suez Canal, and the strategic stronghold of the Middle East.

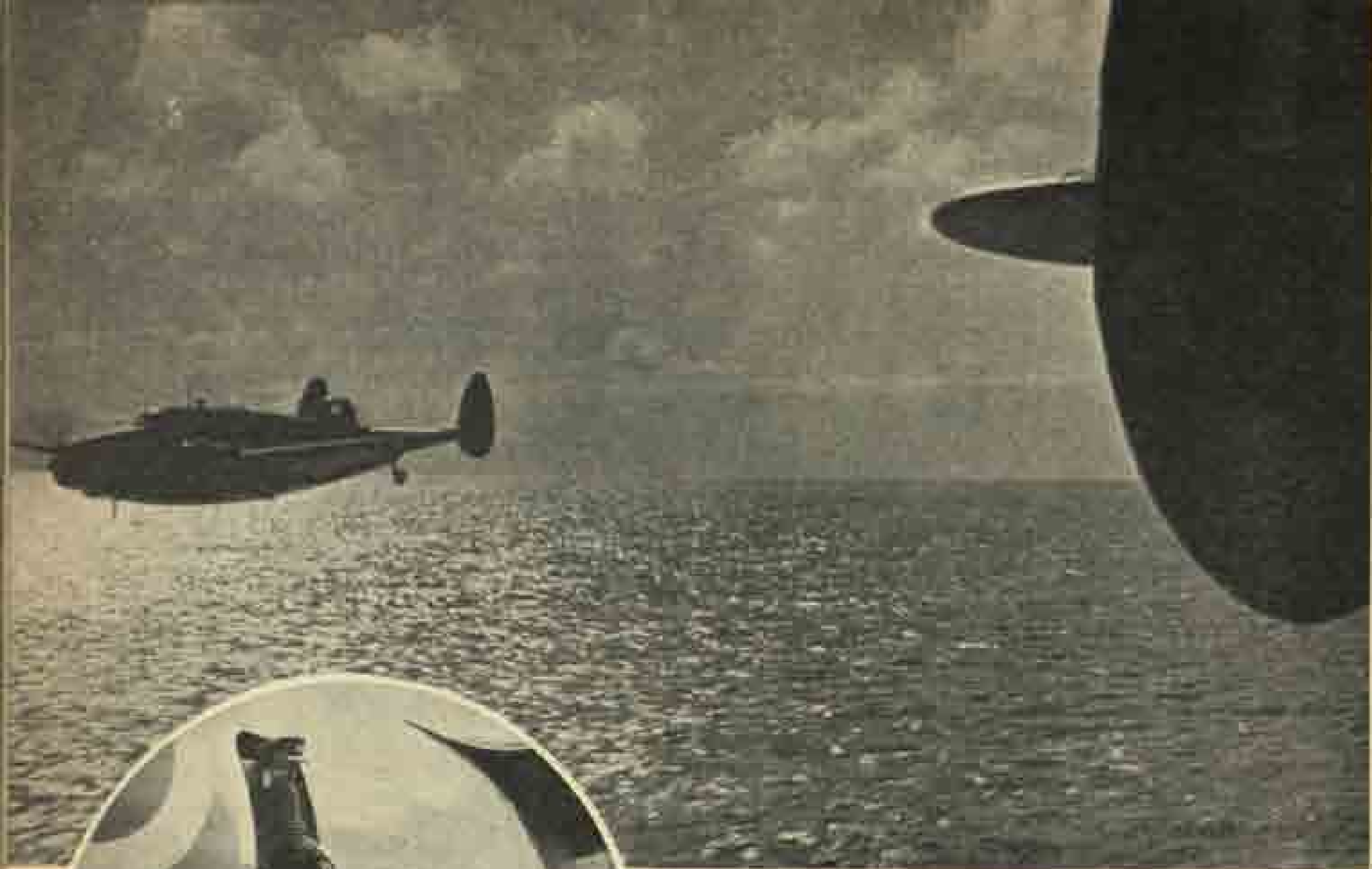
In the wider sphere were the problems of the integration of British and American resources, not only so as to obtain joint effort and avoid duplication, but to achieve the most effective joint use of available tonnage and to harmonize production programmes with the necessity of reducing demands on shipping. In January 1942, as a result of consultations between Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt, "combined boards" were set up to deal with munitions, raw materials and shipping, with representatives in London and Washington. The Combined Shipping Adjustment Boards were designed to achieve, in principle, a pooling of shipping resources without, in fact, the creation of any such physical pool. By this means the margins of shipping on the various routes were dealt with in the most satisfactory manner from the point of view of economy in shipping as a whole. Even in the case of individual ships the work of the Boards came into play to see that by dove-tailing British imports and U.S. Army supplies on an Atlantic voyage, for instance, a ship would be most effectively loaded by weight as well as by space. The general plan of integration was carried a stage further in June with the setting up of a Combined Production and Resources Board and a Combined Food Board.

It was noted above that, besides achieving the most effective use of ships, the other parts of the threefold solution to the "battle of distribution" had to be sought in the blunting of the U-boat weapon and the stepping up of merchant ship production. As to the former,



FIRSTFRUITS OF GIGANTIC SHIPBUILDING PROGRAMME

America's shipbuilding target for 1942 was 8,000,000 tons deadweight. At the beginning of February there arrived in a British port the 'Ocean Vanguard,' built in the U.S.A. for Britain—first of many thousands of her kind to be turned out by mass production. Component portions were made in engineering yards all over the country, for assembly at the seaboard. The 2nd and 3rd Engineers are seen at the controls. *Photo, Keystone*





COASTAL COMMAND'S VIGOROUS OFFENSIVE IN THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

During the year 1942 aircraft of Coastal Command flew more than 25,000,000 miles, mostly on anti-submarine patrols, which numbered 12,000. Three hundred attacks were made on U-boats, and over 4,000 on enemy shipping. Top, a Hudson of the Dover Squadron, R.C.A.F., flies low over the North Sea in search of enemy shipping. Below, seen from an escorting Flying Fortress, a convoy from America nears Britain. Inset, W.A.A.F.s of a Coastal Command ground crew load parachutes into a Sunderland flying-boat.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Fox

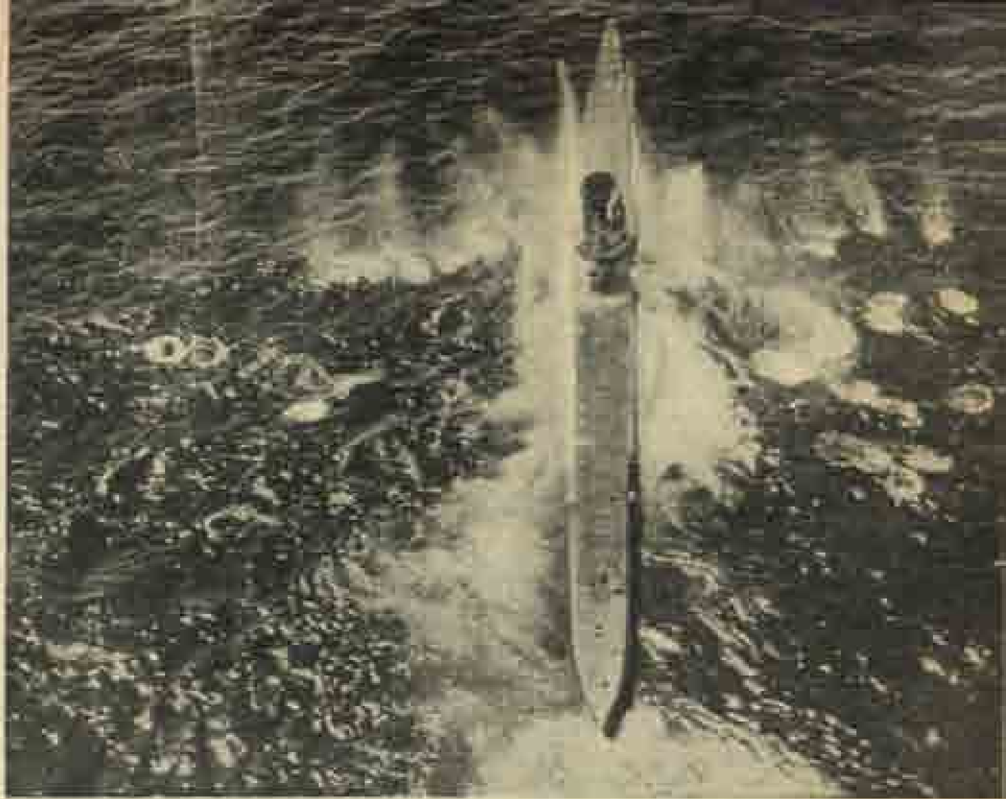


there was no doubt that the chief hopes lay in stronger convoy escort and improved anti-U-boat measures. But the bombing of U-boat bases and shipyards was also a factor of considerable importance. St. Nazaire, Emden, Hamburg, and other places were frequent targets of increasingly heavy bombing raids aimed at reducing the enemy's power at sea. The Secretary of State for Air stated in March that 40 per cent of Bomber Command's total effort during the previous year had been expended on targets chosen by the Navy. There is little doubt that in 1942 that percentage was, if anything, increased. One of the most spectacular raids of the war, the daylight bombing of Augsburg, 500 miles into Germany, was aimed at the M.A.N. works turning out Diesel engines for U-boats.

The first half of 1942 saw the huge American shipbuilding programme getting into its stride: 8,000,000 tons deadweight—more than the total British, Allied and neutral losses from September 1939 to the end of 1940—were promised for 1942. By June considerably less than half this tonnage had been completed, but the momentum of the vast effort could be seen to be gathering. At the beginning of February there had arrived in a British port with her first cargo a ship more appropriately named, perhaps, than any other in history—the "Ocean Vanguard." Built in America under British Admiralty auspices, she was indeed the vanguard of thousands of standardized "tramp" ships, mass-produced to form the backbone of the greatest industrial effort ever seen.

Gigantic Shipbuilding Programme

It was ships that sustained the United Nations during these months of accumulation of strength. But it was men who kept the ships at sea—seamen of many nationalities linked by common dangers and the qualities, in uncommon degree, of bravery and fortitude. They faced the hazards of weather—"an exceptionally rigorous winter," in the words of Admiral Sir Percy Noble, Commander-in-Chief, Western Approaches. They faced the constant danger of the usually unseen torpedo and the deadly mine. They ran the gauntlet of seemingly incessant aerial attacks in convoys to Malta, convoys to Murmansk and Archangel; attacks pressed home with ruthless daring and aimed always at the merchant ships and the cargoes in their holds. Theirs was a glorious part; but it was also a grim one, more so than any other. For besides the lethal weapons of war were horrors of a more sinister kind—slow freezing in bitter northern waters, death



CAUGHT BY A SUNDERLAND IN BAY OF BISCAY

On its way to raid shipping in the Atlantic this U-boat was detected and bombed by a Sunderland flying boat of Coastal Command; the raider was forced to the surface, badly mauled. The Sunderland, its bombs gone, could only attack with its guns: the hail of fire which raked the enemy is shown by the bullet splashes around. Finally, the U-boat went down in a pool of oil, after firing with its deck gun.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

by starvation, suicidal madness, the lonely helplessness of a raft in mid-Atlantic. No efforts were spared by the authorities to improve lifesaving measures and, by every means, the chances of survival from a sunken ship wherever it might be. Improvements in equipment were constantly introduced, and much thought and experiment expended. But it is less than just to the men on whom so much depended to forget or ignore the part of their experiences that is far removed from the dash and glory of battle.

The story of the Norwegian cargo ship "Blink" is just one in dozens of similar "incidents" of the Atlantic Battle. She was torpedoed, and 17 of the men found themselves in one of the open boats. The sea was rough enough to wash the men overboard more than once. Ships passed without seeing the lifeboat. The men were 66 hours in that boat, and many went mad and threw themselves overboard, although sharks were close behind. "They would begin to talk confusedly of comfortable beds and hot coffee, and one by one they lost their reason," said a survivor. Only six were saved. Such ordeals might be matters of hours, days, or weeks—the conditions were never the same, and it was on the conditions as much as anything that survival depended.

In one instance a seaman arrived in Australia after spending nearly two months in an open lifeboat, the sole survivor of a ship torpedoed by a Japanese submarine on December 7, 1941. Another was 46 days on a raft. "Not a proper raft but just a float apparatus—lashed boards 5 ft. square"—was the home of seaman Edward Gordon Elliott for 13 days in shark-infested waters under a scorching sun. There were more than one clinging to this affair to begin with. The sharks "kept swimming round us for days, waiting for us, trying to sweep us off with their tails, diving underneath the float and trying to bump us off." They had no food, "but thirst was worst of all. It was a terrible strain to keep myself from drinking sea water—to keep myself from taking just a drop to rinse my mouth with."

Forty-six Days On a Raft

Seamen sometimes "got their own back" with the guns of their ship. Occasionally a merchant ship succeeded in ramming a submarine. One of the many remarkable exploits against a U-boat was the action by the naval trawler "Lady Shirley," the loss of which was announced in January (*see* p. 1899).

It was on January 31 that one U-boat excelled herself. That evening a report was received in the Admiralty that the Royal Mail steamer "Brittany" had been torpedoed 450 miles north of the Azores. The "Brittany," however, was known to be elsewhere. Shortly after,

the message was urgently repeated and the name of the ship was given as the "Spreewald," last heard of at Yokohama in August 1941. A search disclosed a patch of oil three miles wide. The "Spreewald"—a German ship—had sunk, the victim of a U-boat.

An exploit of a different character, demonstrating great courage and determination, came from northern waters.

Blockade Runners

When Norway was invaded ships of the Norwegian merchant marine implicitly carried out instructions from London, despite German orders feigning to come from Norwegian owners. But a number of Norwegian ships found themselves at Gothenburg, in Sweden, where a dispute arose as to their ownership. They had been chartered to Great Britain by the Norwegian Government, but Germany laid claim to the ownership. The Swedish authorities arrested the ships, and legal and diplomatic discussion followed. In March 1942, when the Supreme Court at Stockholm recognized the immunity claimed by the British Government, which refused to accept a summons to attend the Court, the arrest was repealed.



MERCHANT NAVY FIREMEN LEARN NEW METHODS

At Firemen's Schools for the Merchant Navy at our principal ports men learnt how to stoke the boilers so that the ship's funnels did not belch forth the tell-tale smudge of smoke which might betray the whereabouts of a convoy to the enemy. Here, in a model stokehold, they feed in dummy fuel and are taught to reduce the smoke to the minimum.

Photo, "Daily Mirror"

A month later the 10 or 11 ships involved, under cover of snow and fog, attempted to run the German blockade of the Skagerrak. The Germans, who had been waiting all the winter, discovered the unescorted convoy. The "Skytteren," a former White Star liner converted into a whale-oil factory ship, and the "Buccaneer," a tanker, were sunk. Varying reports announced that two or three of the ships were scuttled by their crews, and it is known that two more ships returned to Swedish waters, where their English captains were arrested. Germany protested to the Swedish Government for allowing guns to be put aboard the ships, and accused the British diplomatic representatives of being involved in the affair. The Ministry of Information in London described the courageous efforts as having been "partially successful."

About the same time a Norwegian coastal vessel was dramatically kidnapped and brought to England. A group of young Norwegians decided to seize a ship and navigate her across.

How the 'Galtesund' was Seized

They boarded the "Galtesund" as passengers at various ports of call, and when she left Flekkifiord they whipped out revolvers, seized the bridge and engine room, and forced the captain and crew to obey. As the ship failed to arrive at the next port of call it was announced she had met with an accident. She was spotted by R.A.F. planes, which sent a trawler to guide her through British minefields.



VETERANS COME BACK TO HELP IN THE FIGHT

Retired master mariners, whose average age was 60, filled posts in the Trade Department of the Admiralty, where they helped in the war against U-boats. With expert knowledge of conditions in the Seven Seas they plotted the position of raiders as reports came in, and directed shipping so that the U-boats could be circumvented.

Photo, "Daily Mirror"

As the first half of 1942 ended the scene was sombre. With the fall of Tobruk in Libya a threat to Allied maritime strategy in the Middle East was renewed. In the Far East Japan had been checked, but not defeated. In the Atlantic the U-boats still hunted with dangerous success. At the end of June Mr. Churchill returned from Washington, and a joint statement recorded: "Because of the wide extension of the war to all parts of the world, transportation of the fighting forces, together with the transportation of munitions of war and supplies, still constitutes the major problem of the United Nations."

Diary of the War

MARCH and APRIL, 1942

March 1, 1942. Russian offensive in Kerch peninsula and N. of Sevastopol. Japanese land on Mindanao.

March 2. General Sir Archibald Wavell reassumes command, India and Burma.

March 3. Japanese transports in Subic Bay attacked by General MacArthur's air forces. General Wavell meets Chiang Kai-shek at Lashio, Burma. R.A.F. bombs French factories and shipyards in daylight; attacks the Renault works near Paris at night.

March 4. Lt.-Gen. H. ter Poorten apptd. C.-in-C. Allied land forces, and Rear-Adm. J. J. A. van Staveren, C.-in-C. naval forces in S.W. Pacific. Japanese reach west bank of Sittang river.

March 5. Dutch evacuate Batavia; Governor of Burma leaves Rangoon; General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander apptd. G.O.C. Burma. Air Marshal Sir R. Peirse apptd. A.O.C.-in-C. India. In Britain National Service Acts extended to men of 41–45.

March 7. Rangoon evacuated.

March 8. Big Japanese landings at Salamaua and Lae (New Guinea).

March 9. Surrender of Java; Japanese occupy Bandung and Surabaya. Anglo-Greek Agreement for employment of Greek armed forces. Adm. H. Stark apptd. to command U.S. Naval forces in Europe. German battleship "Tirpitz" attacked by our naval aircraft after leaving Trondheim.

March 10. Japanese land at Buka (Solomons); enemy shipping in Salamaua harbour bombed by Allied aircraft. Chiang Kai-shek appts. Lieut.-General Stillwell (U.S. Army) to command Chinese armies in Burma. Mr. Eden tells Parliament of atrocities at Hongkong.

March 12. British garrison withdrawn from Andamans. Mr. Oliver Lyttelton apptd. Min. of Production.

March 14. Gen. Sir H. Pownall apptd. to Ceylon Command.

March 15. Vice-Admiral Sir Geoffrey Layton apptd. C.-in-C. Ceylon. Hitler speaks at the Zeughaus, Berlin.

March 17. General Douglas MacArthur, in Australia, takes up Allied Command; in Philippines Maj.-Gen. Jonathan Wainwright takes over. Battle for Kharkov; Germans encircled at Staraya Russa.

March 18. Successful Allied air attack on Japanese shipping, etc. in New Guinea.

March 19. Mr. R. G. Casey apptd. Min. of State in Cairo and member British War Cabinet.

March 20. Eighth Army units raid Rommel's lines at Tmimi. Chinese-Iraqian Treaty of Friendship.

March 22. Three-day naval action in Mediterranean; small squadron under Rear-Adm. Vian fights off strong enemy force attacking convoy to Malta. Loss of British submarine P-38 announced.

March 23. Japanese occupy Andamans. British submarines sink two Italian submarines in Mediterranean. Sir Stafford Cripps arrives at Delhi with H.M. Govt.'s proposals for Indian settlement.

March 24. Corregidor heavily bombed. Formation of British Army Air Corps.

March 25. Sir Stafford Cripps meets Congress Party and Moslem leaders.

March 26. Three-day air attack on Corregidor begins.

March 27. General Blamey apptd. C.-in-C. Allied land forces in Australia; Pres. Quezon reaches Australia from Philippines. Sir Stafford Cripps meets Mr. Gandhi. At night, combined force of Navy, Army and R.A.F. attack Nazi submarine base at St. Nazaire; H.M.S. "Campbeltown," laden with explosives, rams dock gates and is then blown up.

March 28. At night, heavy R.A.F. raid on Lübeck.

March 29. British Govt.'s proposals for Indian settlement published. Allied convoy en route to Murmansk attacked by German naval force, which is dispersed by the escort.

March 30. H.M. the King broadcasts. Loss of H.M. cruiser "Naiad" announced. Pacific War Council set up in Washington. Sir Stafford Cripps broadcasts to the peoples of India.

March 31. Treaty of Amity between China and Turkey.

April 1, 1942. Japanese begin heavy assault on Bataan positions. Chinese forces withdraw from Toungoo after a week's heroic resistance. Heavy Japanese attack at Prome. At night R.A.F. bombs Matford works at Poissy.

April 2. Indian Congress Party replies to British proposals. At night, R.A.F. again raids Poissy.

April 3. Japanese bomb Mandalay. American bombers raid Rangoon and Andamans from Indian bases. Loss of H.M. destroyer "Heythrop" announced.

April 5. Japanese bomb Colombo, losing 27 aircraft. At night, R.A.F. bombs Cologne and Rhineland; also Gennevilliers works, near Paris.

April 6. Attack on Bataan positions grows fiercer. Japanese land on Bougainville (Solomons); they bomb ports in Madras Presidency.

April 7. British reply to Congress Party's counter-proposals for Indian settlement. Adm. Helfrich apptd. C.-in-C. Dutch and N.E.I. forces in Far East. Loss of H.M. destroyer "Havock" and submarine "Tempest" announced.

April 9. Surrender of Wainwright's forces on Bataan; Wainwright goes to Corregidor. Japanese bomb Trincomalee, losing 21 aircraft; H.M. cruisers "Dorsetshire" and "Cornwall" and the aircraft carrier "Hermes" sunk in Indian Ocean by enemy aircraft. British submarine sinks Italian cruiser in Mediterranean.

April 10. Breakdown of Indian negotiations; Congress Party rejects British proposals. Japanese land on Cebu and on Billiton Island.

April 11. New Cabinet in Bulgaria under Filoff as Premier and Foreign Minister.

April 12. Heavy bombing and shelling of Corregidor. In Burma, enemy resumes offensive N. of Toungoo; British withdraw. Iran breaks off relations with Japan. R.A.F. bombers raid Genoa and Turin.

April 13. Thirteen American bombers raid the Philippines from Australian bases. Apptmt. of Lord Louis Mountbatten as Chief of Combined Operations announced, dating from March 18. Adm. Somerville apptd. C.-in-C. Eastern fleet.

April 14. Pierre Laval becomes chief of Vichy Govt. R.A.F., in a raid on Port Blair (Andamans), destroys 13 Japanese flying boats.

April 15. British forces in Burma retire to new positions on Irrawaddy. At night, R.A.F. bombers attack St. Nazaire.

April 16. More Japanese land in Panay. George Cross awarded to Malta.

April 17. Oilfields at Yenangyaung destroyed by British forces as they withdraw. Lancaster bombers attack Augsburg in daylight; seven out of twelve lost in the operation.

April 18. American medium bombers led by Maj.-Gen Doolittle, raid Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Yokohama and Nagoya, taking off from U.S. aircraft carrier "Hornet" when 800 miles from Japan. Von Leeb removed from command on Leningrad front. Free French submarine "Surcouf" announced lost. Enemy submarines shell Curaçao. Pétain appoints Admiral Darlan as his successor, and also as Chief of Armed forces.

April 21. General Giraud escapes from fortress at Königstein to Switzerland.

April 22. Loss of H.M.A.S. "Vampire" (destroyer) announced. Reconnaissance raid on Boulogne by Combined Operations force. Announced that American forces are in India.

April 23. New Zealand included in new U.S. Naval command. South African Govt. breaks off relations with Vichy. R.A.F. delivers first of four successive heavy night attacks on Rostock.

April 24. German night raid on Exeter, first of a series of reprisal bombings ("Baedeker" raids) of Cathedral cities.

April 25. Loss of H.M. destroyer "Southwold" announced. Night raid on Bath. R.A.F. bombs Skoda works at Pilsen.

April 26. After a speech to the Reichstag, Hitler is given powers of supreme law lord, overriding the judiciary. Another raid on Bath.

April 27. Night raid on Norwich.

April 28. Sir Stafford Cripps reports in Parliament on his Indian mission. Night raid on York. R.A.F. attacks Kiel ("Scharnhorst" there).

April 29. Japanese capture Lashio. Switzerland instead of Argentina to protect interests of Allies in Japan. Hitler and Mussolini meet at Salzburg.

April 30. H.M.S. "Edinburgh" damaged by U-boat in Arctic (sunk in later attack on May 2).





BLACK-OUT IN NEW YORK

The two larger photographs were taken early in 1942 from the Radio Corporation of America Building, looking south. Top, time 9.29 p.m., just before a test black-out; below, at 9.30 p.m.; the glow in background, against which the Empire State Building is dimly silhouetted, came from an area not included in the black-out. Right, air-raid precaution notice on a lamp-post in Fifth Avenue.

Photos, Fox; "New York Times" Photos



SIX MONTHS OF GIGANTIC EFFORT IN THE UNITED STATES

In this Chapter, covering the first half of 1942, the story of America's war effort is told by Spencer Brodney, Editor of 'Current History' (New York). The reactions of the people to the crippling disasters of December 1941 and the following months are described—the enormous programme for war construction; the building up of the armed forces; the gradual and all-compelling marshalling of American opinion behind the President

The United States was organizing for war—was, in fact, already in the war—well before Japan struck the first blow on December 7, 1941. The outbreak of the conflict in Europe more than two years before had made many Americans, and none more than President Roosevelt, feel that they would inevitably become involved. A vast defence programme had been launched and was being steadily expanded in spite of strong opposition from the various anti-interventionist and anti-war sections of the community. Thus it happened that, although Pearl Harbour came as a shock which for the moment left the nation breathless, it did not by any means find America having to start from scratch in organizing for the struggle.

Primarily America could contribute to the war effort of the United Nations by throwing the full weight of her industrial power into the scales, but the United States Government never intended to be content with only providing weapons and supplies. It meant to take as big a hand in the actual fighting as any other nation waging war on the Axis, and to be one of the chief artificers of the victory on which the future peace of the world should be built. Hence it was inevitable that America should have a part in planning the grand strategy of the war commensurate with her contribution to the common cause.

This immediately gave rise to the question of the High Command and the necessity for the most effective coordination of the plans of the British and American war leaders in particular. First of all, changes were made in the American command as a result of the disaster at Pearl Harbour. On December 17, 1941, it was announced that Admiral H. Kimmel, Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet, Lieut.-General W. Short, Commander of the Hawaiian Department of the United States Army, and Major-General F. Martin, Commander of the Army Air Corps in Hawaii, had been removed from active duty. This cleared the way for the appointment on December 20 of Admiral Ernest J. King as Commander-in-Chief of the United States Fleet and for his being subsequently given complete authority over all naval operations. Similar authority was conferred on Major-General Dwight D. Eisenhower in the European theatre of operations. (He was made Lieut.-General on July 7, 1942.)

Changes in High Command

More important than these purely internal changes were those resulting from Mr. Winston Churchill's visit to President Roosevelt soon after the Pearl Harbour catastrophe. The first notable step towards a combined war effort was taken on New Year's Day, 1942, when representatives of 26 countries at Washington signed the United Nations' Pact (see p. 1967) with its pledge to use all resources for the overthrow of the Axis, and not to make a separate armistice or peace. One of the first practical results of the conference was the selection of General Sir Archibald Wavell to head a unified command in the Pacific war, and the establishment of a liaison in Washington to coordinate the United Nations' war effort in the Pacific area. A further result was that when General Douglas MacArthur escaped from Bataan to Australia he was put in command not only of the American forces but of all United Nations forces in the south-west Pacific.

The original Pacific Council in Washington did not include all the British Dominions nor the Netherlands Government-in-exile, which, with Great Britain and the Dominions, worked together through another Council in London. Late in March, after a conference of representatives of the United Nations (at which Dr. Herbert V. Evatt, Australian Minister of External Affairs, was prominent), a new Pacific Council was set up in Washington, the members including Great Britain, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands East Indies, Canada and China. Its purpose was to discuss the political ramifications of the war effort to the end, as President Roosevelt put



SYMBOLIZING THE SWITCH-OVER TO WAR PRODUCTION

One of a series put out by the American Office for Emergency Management, this poster by Jean Carlu emphasizes the dual demand of the assembly line and the firing line. At the top a mechanic operates a pneumatic riveter on steelwork; beneath, a machine-gunner is shown. Behind the firing line a huge industrial army was built up to supply it.

Photo, Wide World Photos

it, of assuring "the complete cooperation and understanding of all the nations concerned." The Pacific Council in London kept in close touch with this new body. Here, as in so many other directions, America was striving to make the "United Nations" mean all that the name implied. Vital as was the military and political cooperation that had been initiated, it would have been incomplete without machinery for economic collaboration between the United Nations. Foremost among the organizations created for this latter purpose were the joint economic boards set up in January 1942 by Great Britain and the United States to pool and distribute shipping, munitions and raw materials.

The Lease-Lend Act, which had become law on March 11, 1941, played an ever more important part in the American effort to increase and consolidate the fighting strength of the United Nations. By May 31, 1942, aid from this source had already amounted to $4,500,000,000 and was rising to an estimated annual rate of $8,000,000,000. War materials accounted for more than half the figure, but manufactured goods and foodstuffs were also being sent abroad in large quantities. After negotiations for more than six months Great Britain and the United States, on February 23, 1942, signed a treaty implementing the original lease-lend programme and

Lease-Lend: 4½ Billion Dollars



LT.-GEN. DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

On June 25, 1942, he was designated Commanding General, U.S. forces in the European theatre of war, with H.Q. in London. Earlier he had been Chief of War Plans Division, U.S. War Dept. General Staff, and from April 1942 Asst. Chief of Staff in charge of Operations Division, Office of Chief of Staff, Washington. *Photo, Topical Press*

providing for reciprocity wherever possible. One consequence of this was that, as American troops moved overseas, British and also Australian aid was afforded on an ever-increasing scale. The Lease-Lend Pact opened the way for "all other countries of like mind" to enter into similar arrangements.

One of the questions on which Britain and America might perhaps not have been able to see eye to eye was the relative importance of the war in Europe and the war in the Pacific. Nevertheless, it was agreed that the United Nations should aim at knocking out Germany before turning in full force against Japan. To this there was some opposition in the U.S.A. among those who clamoured against treating the war in the Pacific as a "side-show." But it was obvious that America could not wage war on an equally large scale on both sides of the world, and that the most that could be done until Germany was defeated would be to keep open the trans-Pacific lines of communication and to hold the enemy in the South-West Pacific so that Australia would be safe from invasion.



ADMIRAL ERNEST J. KING, U.S. NAVY

He was appointed C.-in-C. of the U.S. Fleet on December 20, 1941, and three months later placed in control of all U.S. naval operations. His wide experience included command of a submarine division, of the aircraft carrier 'Lexington,' of aircraft battle craft, and of a patrol force. *Photo, "March of Time"*

Another important question of grand strategy that America strove to prevent from causing friction concerned Russia. Premier Stalin's insistence on a Second Front in Europe was regarded by most Americans as necessary for the speedy defeat of Germany; but in certain influential quarters the old fear of Bolshevism was still alive and was said to be obstructing the wholehearted aid that Russia so urgently needed. When, however, Molotov (Soviet Foreign Commissar) visited Washington late in May, President Roosevelt took the occasion to strengthen Russo-American relations. The most definite result of Molotov's stay in America was the signing of a master Lease-Lend Pact, similar to that between Britain and America.

Its main purpose was to increase and speed up deliveries to Russia despite the added demands on American production and the dangers that lurked along the sea lanes. American aid had already been by no means inconsiderable, and now there was the assurance that it would be greater and more effective. As for a Second Front, the White House announced that during Molotov's visit a full understanding had been reached on the "urgent tasks of creating a Second Front in Europe in 1942." To judge by the discussion that followed, these words were not quite so clear as they seemed, for it was argued that the understanding did not refer to the actual opening of a Second Front, but to the "urgent tasks" that would yet have to be carried out before a Second Front could be opened in 1942. The general trend of opinion seemed to be definitely toward regarding Russia as one of the Great Powers that were destined to play an important part in the post-war world, and with which it would be advisable to prepare to work and live. This fact was recognized in the provision in the new Russo-American Agreement for post-war cooperation.

Molotov at Washington

American organization for war during the first six months of 1942 was determined primarily by the immediate demand of defeating the Axis powers, but it was obvious that many of the measures adopted to this end were at the same time shaped by the gradually developing idea of the part that America should play in the Peace settlement. Many Americans, for instance,



NEW PACIFIC WAR COUNCIL

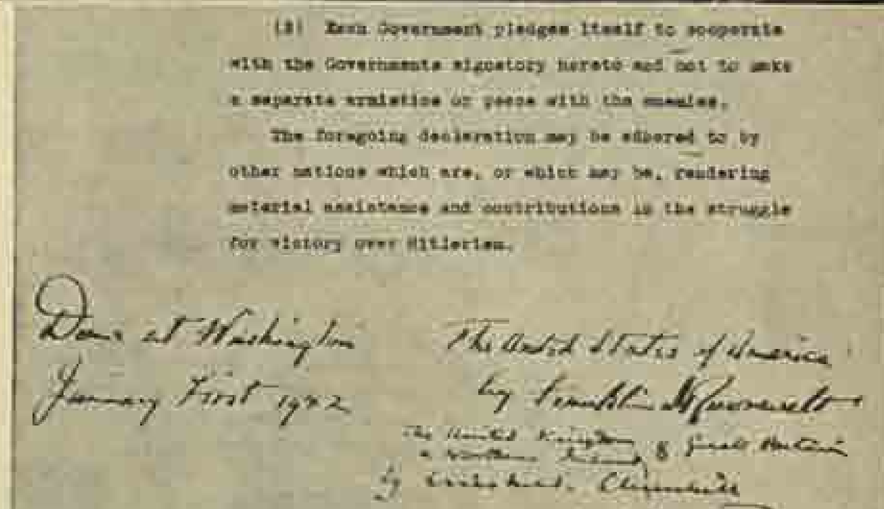
The first meeting was held on April 1, 1942, at the White House, Washington, Mr. Roosevelt presiding. Left to right, around the table: T. V. Soong (China); Walter Nash (New Zealand); Dr. Herbert V. Evatt (Australian Minister of External Affairs); Lord Halifax (British Ambassador to Washington); President Roosevelt; Hume Wrong (Canada); Alexander Loudon (Netherlands); Harry Hopkins (President Roosevelt's adviser). The purpose of the Council was to discuss the political aspects of the war effort so as to assure complete cooperation and understanding.

Photo, Keystone

looked upon the United Nations' Pact as intended not only to produce a cohesive programme for fighting the war, but also as the nucleus of a world organization for peace and security that might either replace the League of Nations or pave the way to its revival and reconstitution on a sounder basis. In any case, the widespread discussion of Peace plans assumed practically without exception that Isolationism was extinct and that the United States would occupy a commanding position in the post-war world.

Not until the full reality of war broke upon the people did the mighty industrial giant that is America wake up with a roar that reverberated through the factories and workshops, the mills and the mines spread over its three million square miles of territory. Then came such startling changes as the country had never before witnessed—changes that no American dreamed were possible, even as it became increasingly certain that war lay ahead and that everyone would have to share in the storm and stress. Of these changes none was more impressive than the way in which the production machine was swung over from peacetime needs to the

Mighty Industrial Spurt



(2) Each Government pledges itself to cooperate with the Governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

The foregoing declaration may be adhered to by other nations which are, or which may be, rendering material assistance and contributions in the struggle for victory over Hitlerism.

Done at Washington
January First 1942

The United States of America
by Franklin D Roosevelt

The Commonwealth of Australia
by R G Casey

The Kingdom of Belgium

Canada
by Leighton McCarthy

DECLARATION OF TWENTY-SIX UNITED NATIONS

Representatives of 26 countries met in Washington at the end of December 1941, and after conferences a joint declaration was signed on New Year's Day, 1942, pledging them to employ their full resources against the members of the Tripartite Axis Pact and its adherents (see p. 1967). The second page of the Declaration, with some of the signatures, is here shown.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos



VISIT WHICH STRENGTHENED RUSSO-AMERICAN RELATIONS

Towards the end of May 1942 Mr. Molotov, the Soviet Foreign Commissar, went to Washington, where he signed a master Lease-Lend Agreement for his country and discussed with President Roosevelt the opening of a second front in Europe. (Left to right) Admiral King, Mr. Cordell Hull (Secretary of State), General Marshall, Mr. Molotov, Mr. Litvinov (Soviet Ambassador)—in front of the Russian bomber in which the visitor flew back to Moscow.

Photo, Paul Popper

arming and equipping of the millions of fighting men that it was unhesitatingly resolved should be thrown into the breach. This required that many more millions of people should be mobilized to provide weapons and supplies for America's armed forces, as well as for the United Nations which had already been receiving aid all over the world. On December 7, 1941, about 55,000,000 persons were gainfully employed in the United States; within six months the number rose to 59,000,000—about 40 per cent of the total population. Of that number over 10,000,000 were directly engaged in war work and many more were producing materials needed by America's allies abroad.

Smooth Transition

Some observers who followed day by day the steps by which the American war economy was brought into being could not help getting the impression that America was muddling through. Yet the wrangling and friction that furnished the theme of endless newspaper stories merely reflected the necessary and not at all excessive discussion of ways and means that in a democracy should attend any vast enterprise. Actually, when one looks back, the remarkable thing is how smoothly and rapidly everything fell into place. This is proved by the enormous increase that soon began in the production of weapons and the innumerable items of war materials and supplies.

When President Roosevelt announced to Congress on January 6, 1942, his production programme for the year, the world, and particularly the United States, wondered whether it would be possible for the nation to turn out 60,000 warplanes, 45,000 tanks, 20,000 anti-aircraft guns, and 8,000,000 tons of shipping within twelve months. Although some items on the list were reduced because of the need to increase others, on the whole the programme was well under way within six months. In short, even in these first months America was magnificently living up to the pledge it had given to become "the Arsenal of Democracy." Without this vast production, it is highly improbable that the tide of battle would have begun to turn so soon against the Axis Powers.

Taxpayers' Burdens

Obviously someone had to pay and go on paying for the effort. This was the burden that fell on the American people, of whom a large proportion enjoys a higher standard of living than many other peoples. When the war came, despite vast resources, an abundant supply of man-power and a highly developed industrial system, a strain was placed on the American economy that few had foreseen, and that puzzled many who believed that the nation could be involved in a world war and at the same time go on doing business and enjoying life as usual. Not even America was equal to that. Shortages, not only of vital materials but also of many small things that contributed to comfort, began to make themselves felt and to



BRITISH AND AMERICAN PRODUCTION CHIEFS

In June 1942 Mr. Oliver Lyttelton visited Washington to confer with his 'opposite number,' Mr. Donald M. Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board of the U.S.A., seen here (left) lighting Mr. Lyttelton's cigarette. On March 12 Mr. Lyttelton had been appointed Minister of Production, with chief responsibility for British war production as a whole.

Photo, Keystone

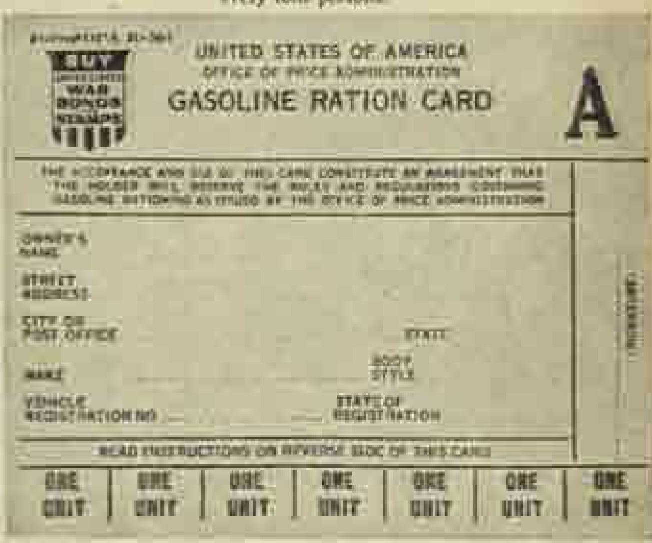






CHANGE-OVER IN U.S. CAR INDUSTRY

In January 1942 the vast motor-car industry of America switched over to the production of military vehicles. (Top, left) Ford No. 30,337,599 rolls off the assembly line—the last for the duration. Petrol (gasoline) sales were cut by 20 per cent in March, and after May 15, when official rationing began, the average motorist could get only three gallons per week; ration card below. The effect on America's highways is graphically shown by the photographs of the West Side Highway along Riverside, New York (lower, left), before rationing of petrol was introduced, and (top right) after rationing—this in a country with nearly one motor vehicle for every four persons.



BUY WAR BONDS STAMPS

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
OFFICE OF PRICE ADMINISTRATION
GASOLINE RATION CARD

A

THE ACCEPTANCE AND USE OF THIS CARD CONSTITUTE AN AGREEMENT THAT THE HOLDER WILL OBSERVE THE RULES AND REGULATIONS GOVERNING GASOLINE RATIONING AS ISSUED BY THE OFFICE OF PRICE ADMINISTRATION

OWNER'S NAME

STREET ADDRESS

CITY OR POST OFFICE ____ STATE

MAKE ____ BODY STYLE

VEHICLE REGISTRATION NO. ____ STATE OF REGISTRATION

READ INSTRUCTIONS ON REVERSE SIDE OF THIS CARD

ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT	ONE UNIT





AMERICAN WOMEN IN INDUSTRY AND THE SERVICES

(Top) At an American small-arms factory which turns out ·50-calibre armour-piercing cartridges for machine-guns used in aircraft; these presses are in the finishing line. (Centre) Operating a pneumatic riveter on aircraft fuselage members. (Below) Uniforms of the American Women's Army Auxiliary Corps: (left) officer's winter dress (olive and khaki); (centre) summer uniform; (right) private's summer uniform, khaki. *Photos, Sport & General; "March of Time"; Topical*



affect the people in all sorts of unexpected and disconcerting ways. Materials required for the production of armaments were strictly rationed for civilian use if, by chance, surpluses were available. Goods needed by America's allies on the battle-fronts were allocated to these countries under lease-lend and were consequently limited for American consumption. At the same time foreign sources of supply, particularly those in the Orient, were cut off. These restrictions and shortages were felt all the more because of the tremendous increase in purchasing power in the hands of American war workers. More people than ever before were trying to buy steadily decreasing quantities of goods.

Before the war there had been over 32,000,000 motor vehicles, or nearly one for every four persons, in the United States. Americans had come to imagine that existence was hardly possible without a car, and had grown accustomed to buying a new one every few years. In fact, not a few "traded-in" their used cars for the latest models every year. To such a people a ban on driving for all but essential purposes was perhaps as severe a deprivation as could be thought of. Yet it came about, and one of the strangest spectacles in the months after the Pearl Harbour disaster was the steady disappearance of automobiles from the streets and motor highways.

On New Year's Day, 1942, the Government ordered the stoppage of the manufacture of new motor-cars and of the retail sale of new cars and lorries. A few days later the automobile industry was called upon to begin converting its plants to war production, a change that was carried out with remarkable speed. Instead of between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 passenger cars a year that were formerly being built, the manufacturers began turning out a steady stream of army lorries, jeeps, tanks, aeroplanes, aeroplane parts and even ammunition.

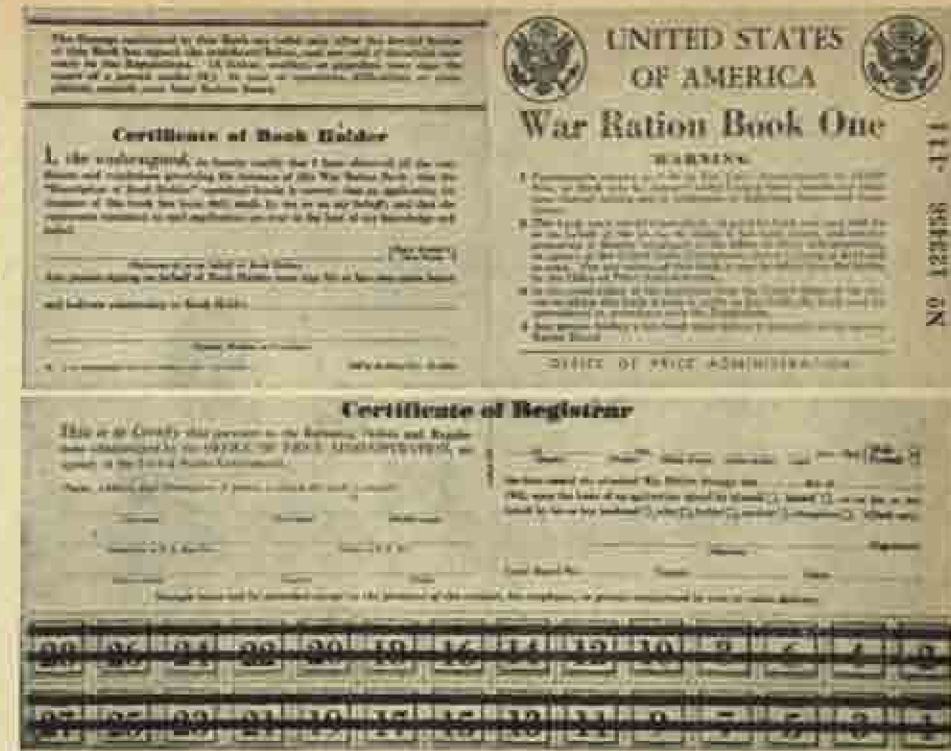
Ban on New Cars & Lorries

To conserve rubber the rationing of tires began on January 5, 1942, and from that time on only war workers, doctors, and others in essential occupations were entitled to buy new tires. In the first month the effect was that only 357,974 tires were sold instead of the normal monthly turnover of 4,000,000. At the same time the Government restricted the retreading of old tires, and drivers had to do the best they could with what they had. Nor was this the whole of the American motorist's problem. A shortage of

tankers that carried petrol soon made itself felt, particularly on the Eastern seaboard of the United States. Even before the war an informal system of petrol rationing had begun in the summer of 1941, when filling stations closed at 7 o'clock every evening in order to limit sales. On March 19, 1942, the Government ordered a 20 per cent cut in petrol retail sales, and filling stations began to ration supplies to drivers with renewed vigour. By May the situation had become so acute that official rationing came into force. Ration books were issued, and after May 15 the average American motorist was entitled to only three gallons of petrol a week. A larger ration was granted to those who were engaged in essential industries or who had to use their cars for business or other necessary purposes. Pleasure driving was no longer countenanced, and Americans had to find other ways of getting from place to place—or else they had to stay at home.

Shortages and restrictions steadily became the rule in every aspect of daily life. On January 27, 1942, Donald M. Nelson, head of the War Production Board, authorized Leon Henderson (Federal Price Administrator) to ration all goods and commodities sold at retail. Almost immediately the amount of cotton and woollen textiles available for civilian use was cut 50 per cent. Only 20 per cent

Drastic Rationing



AMERICA GETS HER FIRST RATION BOOKS

Ration Book No. 1 was for sugar and coffee, and came into use in May 1942. The outside pages with holder's certificate are shown at top; the inside ones, with coupons and Registrar's certificate underneath. Petrol rationing (see p. 2145) followed soon after.

of the 1941 output of electric light bulbs was available for 1942; vacuum cleaners were subjected to an initial reduction of 25 per cent. After January 15 no more spirituous liquor might be manufactured, the alcohol being transferred to the production of explosives. However, it was estimated that the amount of liquor on hand would be enough for four years. Sugar made an early appearance on the scarcity list, and rationing became the rule, with a maximum quota for each person of 50 pounds a year. A 60 per cent reduction in the manufacture and delivery of tin cans, ordered by the War Production Board late in January, struck at the American fondness for canned foods.

The restrictions of car driving had led to a new vogue for the bicycle, but in April the sale of new bicycles was prohibited, and Americans were forced to rely still more upon their feet for locomotion. In the same month the manufacture of radio sets and photographic apparatus was discontinued for the duration of the war. Non-essential building also came under a ban, while regulations to save fabrics in ready-made garments opened an era in which men would have to forgo turn-ups on trousers and women would have to be content with plain skirts.

Not a day passed without some change in the way Americans were accustomed to live. On May 4 they got their first ration books, which were for sugar. Petrol rationing, as we have seen, came a few days later. Everywhere shortages cropped up and restrictions came into force to modify the American tradition that everybody could do as he pleased. But it seemed that the great assault on their prized individualism was being taken in good part by the vast majority of the people. They realized that all these inconveniences and discomforts were necessary for the waging of a total war and, since they were more fully employed and better paid than ever before, and the country itself was not under attack, they also were aware that their burden was a light one compared with the peoples of countries actually ravaged by the war.

At the core of practically all America's problem in organizing for war and creating a war economy was the question of manpower—how to assign the greatest possible number as well as the right kind of men and women to various duties of combat service and war labour: the Selective Service Act of 1940, popularly known as the Draft, had already made military duty obligatory on millions of Americans. The result was that the strength of the Army had grown from 174,000 in July 1939 to over 1,600,000 towards the end of 1941. Then, as soon as America was in the war, the Draft was extended to all males between the ages of 18

Manpower Problems

U.S. ARMY NEWSPAPER

The first issue of 'Yank,' appearing on June 13, 1942, contained a contribution by President Roosevelt entitled 'Why We Fight.' The cover, here reproduced, showed an American gun-crew in Australia.

Photo, "New York Times" Photo





MORE ACCOMMODATION FOR WAR WORKERS

War activities brought so many people to Washington that, in the American phrase, apartments were often rented from the blueprints—booked up before they were built. This photograph shows new building operations undertaken near the American capital early in 1942 in an attempt to ease the situation.
Photo, "March of Time"

and 65, with liability for military service for all between 20 and 45. The expansion of the armed forces from this point onward was so steady that at the end of the first six months after Pearl Harbour there were 2,500,000 men in the Army, 526,000 in the Navy and 100,000 in the Marines; 10,500,000 workers were employed in war plants and were thus entitled to deferment of military service.

It was not long before the respective needs of the fighting forces, industry and agriculture gave rise to a man-power controversy. Farmers and producers of war materials sought to hold back workers they regarded as essential, and in some quarters there was criticism of the War Department for aiming at an Army on a larger scale than would be needed. But since the military leaders were credited with knowing how many million men would be necessary for the dual war in Europe and the Pacific they were allowed to go ahead with little actual opposition. Naturally industry, business and numerous other peacetime activities began to suffer from growing labour shortages, while the everyday conveniences and comforts which the people looked upon as a matter of course became increasingly scarcer. Inevitably women were pressed into service in ever larger numbers. Not only were they now employed in factories and workshops, but they were given opportunities in jobs that had never before been thought of as women's work. America had always been a country where women had more freedom and scope than elsewhere; now they were wearing the trousers to an extent unprecedented anywhere—and literally so as "slacks" came widely into fashion. Congress marked its recognition of the women's part in the war by creating the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps—the "WAACS"—the first of such organizations to release men in uniform from desk jobs for more strenuous kinds of service.

War Dept. Criticized

Altogether, therefore, the first six months after Pearl Harbour saw the United States make remarkably good progress toward becoming a nation organized for total war. In part that was due, as has already been said, to the many measures of preparedness that had been adopted and put into operation before the nation became directly involved in the conflict. But that progress would not have been possible except for the combination of the vast natural resources, the extensive and highly developed industrial plant and equipment, the organizing ability and technical skill and abundant and vigorous man power that had already made the United States the greatest single productive unit in the world, and therefore the most formidable for the waging of a long war that depended as no other war ever had on the use of machines.

Yet even all this might not be enough against a resourceful and ruthlessly efficient enemy if with the machines there were not the right kind of morale among the men who handled them. Of that morale there was no doubt. No war in American history had provoked so little internal opposition, and nowhere was there any disposition to argue that it would suffice to remain on the defensive. The American people were as nearly unanimous as any people could be that only by smashing offensives, first against Germany and then against Japan, could the war be brought to a speedy and victorious conclusion.

On December 7, 1941, the day that the Japanese attacked at Pearl Harbour President Roosevelt won his long struggle for his belief that this was a war that America could not keep out of, and that when it went in it would have to be with everything America had. Behind him on that stand were the overwhelming majority of the American people.

LATIN AMERICA AND THE WAR: GROUPINGS AND REACTIONS

After Japan struck at the United States in December 1941 the 20 Latin American Republics were brought up sharply against the realities of the great conflict which had divided Europe and was now to threaten all America. How they acted during 1942, and some of their major problems, are here discussed, with an account of the Pan-American Conferences

In considering the attitude of the 20 Latin American republics towards the Second World War it is essential to bear in mind certain fundamental characteristics common to them all. Not least of these is the historical fact that there is a Latin American "outlook on life" which is liberal and democratic. This applies to all the peoples, though not to all the present regimes; the "New State" of Brazil, for example, was a quasi-Fascist dictatorship, while the government of Argentina was oligarchical, reactionary and almost feudalistic. The Argentine Government was the only one among the twenty countries to show any pro-Axis leanings. Another characteristic of the Latin American nations is their willingness to get together to settle their disputes and to plan for common aims. The two characteristics mentioned decided in advance what would be the attitude of Latin America in the struggle, and there have been no surprises. Events and clashes of the war have produced the expected reactions. The table in page 2158 indicates attitudes and groupings.

No event served so greatly to canalize attitudes and groupings as the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, December 7, 1941. After it opinion crystallized; a whole hemisphere awoke to threatening danger, and began to act. Before that date, and of considerable importance, was the gradual realization of sinister Nazi intentions in regard to Latin America, as shown by blatant Fifth Column activities and public exposures of local German plotting. U-boat attacks made without warning on unarmed shipping belonging to Latin American countries or off their coasts created widespread indignation. A considerable contribution towards the creation of a pro-Ally public opinion was the defeat of the Luftwaffe by the R.A.F. in 1940, while the courage and character shown by the people of Britain during the period of heavy aerial attacks on cities and ports in 1940-41 evoked the sympathy and admiration of Latin Americans everywhere. Then there had been the Battle of the River Plate (December 13, 1939). No Axis propaganda could counteract the psychological effects produced by these events, to which Pearl Harbour was the climax. While in 1939 the isolation of the Americas made Latin American neutrality tenable, isolation was no longer a reality after the 1940 Axis threat to Brazil from Dakar, and the great initial advantage won by Japan by her foul blow to U.S. naval power. A continent moved into action.

Awakening To Danger

Interrelations among themselves and the relations of Latin American nations with the U.S.A., as shown by Roosevelt's policy and the trend of Pan-Americanism, facilitated the organization and coordination of war effort. The highly successful policy of the "Good Neighbour" launched by the first Roosevelt administration caused a steady weakening of Latin American hostility towards the U.S.A., which had grown during years of an exploiting "dollar diplomacy." Pan-Americanism may be defined as the tendency of the independent nations of the New World to associate on a basis of common interests for common aims. The Pan-American Conference at Panama in 1939 initiated discussions on hemisphere problems arising out of the threatening world situation, and some solid progress was made. But the results of that Conference must be regarded merely as preliminary when one considers the basic achievements of the next Pan-American Conference, held at Rio de Janeiro, January 15-28, 1942. This was attended by representatives from the whole continent, with ten of its countries (including the U.S.A.) now at war with the Axis, and three with diplomatic relations broken off.

The remainder had either extended non-belligerent rights to American



WHEN V SIGNS MARKED ALL NAZI BUILDINGS IN LA PAZ

Bolivia broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy and Japan in January 1942; she declared war on them in April 1943. Long before, however, the people of La Paz (the capital) had shown where their sympathies lay: the above photograph, taken in the late summer of 1941, shows Victory V's painted overnight on the front of an important Nazi building.

Photo issued by the Ministry of Information



IDEOLOGICAL CHANGE-OVER AT SANTIAGO DE CHILE

Top, a meeting of local S.A. 'Assault Troops' in Santiago; a Chilean flag at left and Nazi banners behind. At the rear stands a Chilean officer: (summer of 1941). Chile broke off relations with the Axis on January 20, 1943, when there were huge popular demonstrations in favour of this course. Lower photograph shows the crowd in front of the Presidential palace in the capital.

Photos, "New York Times Magazine"; Keystone



nations at war or had reaffirmed solidarity in the face of Axis aggression. The U.S.A. and Mexico had already taken a realistic step by the creation of a Joint Defence Commission. The Rio Conference produced highly concrete results, which may be summarized as follows:

It was agreed that the republics, "in accordance with the procedures established by their own laws and in conformity with the position and circumstances obtaining in each country," would "recommend the breaking off of their diplomatic relations with Japan, Germany and Italy," and that they would not renew such relations without prior consultation.

Solidarity and determination to collaborate for hemisphere defence were reaffirmed.

While Argentina and Brazil opposed the proposal to adhere to the Atlantic Charter, the Conference took cognizance of the Charter and expressed approval that it conformed to the spirit of American heritage.

Argentina refused to agree to the proposal to declare all allies of the U.S.A. non-belligerent.

It was resolved that no American State at war with a non-American State should be treated by other republics as a belligerent, and it was recommended that facilities be granted to those countries which, in the opinion of each government, contribute to the defence of hemisphere interests.

Relations should be continued with governments in exile of Axis-occupied territories fighting for sovereignty.

Resolutions passed embraced a variety of decisions: for cooperation and co-ordination of all relevant activities, from Fifth Column to aviation facilities for American citizens and nations to the exclusion of those of the Axis, and the creation in Washington of an Inter-American Military, Naval and Technical Commission.

Other resolutions dealt with economic, commercial and financial measures for collaboration, including the elimination of barriers against the free flow of strategic minerals and war materials. Agreement was reached on a Joint War Production Plan, and for intensification of the work of the Inter-American Development Commission.

Finally, that collective security should be founded on "just, effective and liberal economic systems," and that a new order of peace must be supported by economic principles to ensure equitable and lasting international trade with equal opportunities for all nations. To this end an Inter-American Technical Economic Conference charged with war and post-war problems should be created.

After Pan-American Conference

Altogether some 40 resolutions, recommendations and declarations were approved by all America at this most important Conference, which must be regarded as a landmark in American history. The 100 per cent success hoped for was not reached, chiefly because Argentina had forced a weakening of the original resolution in favour of all-round severance of relations with the Axis. Yet the progress made was solid; the Conference provided the essential blueprint for continental effort and



CHRYSLERS BUILD M.3 TANKS INSTEAD OF MOTOR CARS

When the great automobile industry of America settled down to the building of armoured fighting vehicles and transport lorries, its output was enormous. In normal times it had turned out between three and four million passenger vehicles per annum, and now it had to tackle President Roosevelt's programme for 45,000 tanks, with hosts of other military vehicles, during the year. Above, General Grant tanks (M-3) in the Chrysler works at Detroit

Photo, Pictorial Press



OPENING OF THE PAN-AMERICAN CONFERENCE IN THE TIRADENTES PALACE AT RIO DE JANEIRO, JANUARY 15, 1942

President Getulio Vargas, of Brazil, made the opening address to the delegates, the Foreign Ministers of 21 American Republics: United States, Argentina, Panama, Salvador, Costa Rica, Cuba, Santo Domingo, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Chile, Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Peru, Uruguay, Bolivia, Ecuador and Paraguay. Mr. Sumner Welles, American Under-Secretary of State, was leader of the United States delegation. Twice previously the Conference had met—in 1938 at Lima, and in July 1940, at Havana. On the present occasion their purpose, in the words of Mr. Sumner Welles, was "to take counsel as to the course our Governments should take under the shadow of this dire threat to our continued existence as free peoples." (See tabular statement in page 2158.) He called for unity, a common policy of defence and immediate action against Axis agents.

Photo, Keystone



NEW YORK WELCOMES BRITISH AND AMERICAN WAR HEROES

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

The tumultuous greeting to war heroes on June 8, 1942, as they rode up Broadway to a civic welcome by the Mayor, Mr. La Guardia. Among the guests of honour were: Sqdr.-Ldr. J. D. Nettleton, V.C.; Wing-Cmdr. M. Loudon, D.F.C.; Flt.-Lt. C. O. McColpin, D.F.C., 3rd Eagle Squadron; Pilot-Officer A. F. Taylor, D.F.C.; Flt.-Sgt. M. A. D. Riddell, D.F.M.; Sgt. D. N. Huntley, R.A.F.; and Lieut. G. S. Welch, Lieut. Elliot Vandevanter, and Lieut. William Carruthers (U.S.A.A.F.); Lieut. J. M. Hall and Sgt. R. G. Herbert, D.C.M., M.M. (Commandos); Lieut. T. O. Boyd, D.S.O., R.N.V.R.; Chief E.R.A. Harry Howard, D.S.M., R.N.; Ensign D. F. Mason, U.S. Navy.

collaboration in the war, and may be considered the keystone of all-American collaboration.

Notwithstanding this considerable achievement all was not plain sailing, and the Latin American nations were, in fact, tormented by difficulties and anxieties. First, the world shipping problem had rapidly become so acute after the outbreak of war that those countries had to face the prospect of severe economic crisis; and this had not diminished by the end of 1942. Every republic had to face in varying degree the Axis Fifth Column activities, which in some constituted a real menace. One million Germans in Brazil, 250,000 in Argentina, 50,000 in Chile, and thousands in the other countries—mostly Nazified Germans, organized for sabotage, subversion and even military action—this was an internal canker of perilous proportions. It caused a veritable nightmare for the safety of the Panama Canal, of north-east and southern Brazil, Uruguay and the Magellan territories of Argentina and Chile—all vulnerable areas. Vast Italian populations added to the danger: two millions in Argentina, as many in Brazil, 65,000 in Uruguay, 23,000 in Chile, and 30,000 in the other countries.

While many of their institutions were under strict Fascist control and collaborated with the Germans, it was estimated that two-thirds of the Italians in Latin America were anti-Fascist and democratic. Their strongest link with Italy was the clergy, who did not subscribe to democratic doctrines and collaborated politically with Spanish clergy who were mostly Falangist in sympathy. In August 1942 at Montevideo a "Pan-American" Conference was held representing eleven million Free Italians. It declared absolute solidarity with the United Nations and approved the Atlantic Charter. President Roosevelt's master-stroke of political warfare in declaring that Italians in the U.S.A. were not to be treated as enemy aliens evoked joyous repercussions among the Italians of Latin America, and provided a powerful counter-force against the Nazi-Fascist-Falangist Fifth Column.

Strong Anti-Axis Groups

In quite another category were the Japanese, since events showed that every Japanese resident abroad was a probable agent of the Tokyo government. There were over 200,000 Japanese in Brazil, 22,000 in Peru, 6,000 in Mexico, 7,000 in Argentina, and 7,000 scattered throughout Central America. Everywhere they became a cause of apprehension—in São Paulo the police placed the Japanese menace above the German and Italian, and introduced drastic measures to deal with it. In addition to German, Italian and Japanese sources of anxiety, there was everywhere in Latin America the Spanish "Falange Exterior," that branch of the Spanish Fascist Party which functions abroad, proclaims the subtle doctrines of "Hispanidad" (Spanishness), and, because of linguistic, cultural and spiritual affinities with the peoples, was a magnificent cloak for the dissemination of totalitarian philosophy, for espionage, and pro-Axis activities generally. The Nazi Ibero-American Institute in Berlin under General von Faupel, with branches in Barcelona and Madrid and agents in Bohle's "Foreign Organization" in every Latin American country, provided direction for the Spanish Falangists everywhere.

There was a genuine desire in all the Hispanic countries for friendship with a cleanly neutral Spain, which must always be to them the motherland and not just a regime. With this went two anxieties: first, for the pro-Axis activities of Falangists, and second, lest Nationalist Spain should be drawn into the war on Hitler's side. General Franco's publicly proclaimed (December



FEELINGS RAN HIGH IN NEUTRAL ARGENTINA

There were two million Italians and 250,000 Germans in Argentina, together with 7,000 Japanese, which perhaps accounted for that country's cautious attitude towards the Conference proposals at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942. Top, in front, seated, Mr. Sumner Welles (right) with Dr. Enrique Ruiz Guiñazú (Argentine Foreign Minister) at a Conference function. Lower photograph, a brawl at Buenos Aires between medical students and pro-Fascist nationalists.

Photos, Planet News; Associated Press



8, 1942) wish for a Hitler victory shocked millions of Hispano-Americans. The unequivocally pro-Axis declarations of responsible Spanish Ministers since 1939, and in 1942 the realization that Nationalist Spain was putting herself on a war footing, created profound suspicion and the growth of political estrangement throughout Latin America. In Mexico, the government decided in 1942 to treat Spanish republican refugees as allies, and all supporters of General Franco as enemies. Elsewhere, a distinction was drawn between the two categories into which Spaniards—millions of them in Latin America—had divided themselves. The government of General Franco felt compelled to intensify propaganda to allay suspicions; and Falangists began to observe caution.

Such were the main outlines of the political picture of Latin America at the end of 1942. Argentina maintained neutrality and some aloofness, an official aloofness not representative of public feeling. The ruling oligarchy inclined to the view that the landed, industrial and financial interests it represented could not lose and might even gain by an Axis victory, but that the most certain gains would follow neutrality. Foreign Minister Ruiz Guiñazú, authoritarian in sympathy, held rigidly to neutrality. The disclosures in 1940–41 by Argentine Deputy Taborda of local Axis conspiracies, the publication in 1941 of Roosevelt's map of German intentions in Latin America, Sumner Welles's warnings in October 1942 and the sinking of Argentine shipping by U-boats did not shake the immovable attitude of the Argentine government.

From the beginning, Mexico's attitude was never in doubt, for Mexico was politically the most progressive Latin American democracy. By May 1942 Germany claimed to have sunk over 150,000 tons of "enemy" shipping in the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean and to the east of the Antilles. This claim indicated the nature of the war to be waged on Mexico's Atlantic doorstep and the problems to be faced. The government indicated its willingness to do anything within its power to help the United Nations. Mexico declared war upon Germany, Italy and Japan on May 22, 1942. Unrestricted submarine warfare had struck at the hemisphere's lifelines at every converging point. Mexican bases for America's naval units and aircraft, plus facilities provided by the defence bloc formed by Caribbean republics at war, all







WHEN MEXICO MADE UP HER MIND

On May 22, 1942, Mexico declared war upon Germany, Italy and Japan. Top, her President, Manuel Avila Camacho, promises unlimited cooperation with the United Nations. Right, poster calling on the people to remember May 13, when the Argentine tanker 'Potrero del Llano' had been sunk by a U-boat; below, demonstration in the Plaza de la Constitucion, Mexico City, after another such outrage.

helped to counter the U-boat menace. The menace to her long and vulnerable coastline from Japanese naval power in the Pacific caused Chile to maintain neutrality, though the people were whole-heartedly pro-Ally. She broke off diplomatic relations with the three Axis Powers on January 20, 1943, and next day President Rios stated that "The road chosen by Chile will lead to sacrifices which we shall face with the conviction that they are the price to pay for the defence of democracy and the dignity and future of our country."

Brazil, closest economically of all the republics to the U.S.A., maintained neutrality until August 1942, when national patience was exhausted by the sinkings of her ships by U-boats. (On January 28 she had broken off relations with the Axis Powers.) The other republics may briefly be mentioned. Until April 1943 Bolivia remained more interested in home than in foreign politics or the war, while Venezuela (who, like Bolivia, had broken off relations with the Axis) sold vast quantities of petroleum to the United Nations. On April 18, 1942, the oil installations on the Dutch island of Curaçao were shelled by a U-boat (see illus., p. 2128). Here and at Aruba were immense refineries. Cuba, Haiti and Santo Domingo moved in accordance with the wishes of Washington; Panama virtually became United States territory.

The sinkings on the Atlantic seaboard and in the Caribbean accelerated the creation of machinery for collaboration in hemisphere defence and for active assistance to the United Nations. The Washington Pact (January 1, 1942), the Caribbean Commission (March 9, 1942) and the Inter-American Defence Board (March 30, 1942) were its most important instruments. The first Inter-American Conference on Social Security was held in Santiago in September.

One other factor had profound influence throughout Latin America: the German aggression against the U.S.S.R. and the heroic fight of the Russians. Hitherto the Latin American attitude in regard to the Soviets was a mixture of suspicion, hostility and indifference. Now it changed to admiration and friendliness, and finally to desire for the resumption of diplomatic relations, and Mexico, in fact, decided to resume relations. The Anglo-Russian Alliance gave impetus to this change of opinion.

All the factors enumerated above contributed towards focusing, from the United Nations' point of view, on one vast objective towards which the Latin American countries could make their







BRAZIL DECLARES WAR UPON GERMANY AND ITALY

Brazil had a million Germans, twice as many Italians, and 200,000 Japanese within her borders. On August 22, 1942, she declared war on Germany and Italy and broke off relations with Japan. Below, a patriotic demonstration in front of the U.S. Embassy, Rio de Janeiro; left, a German bookshop wrecked some months earlier. Above, Brazil's President, Dr. Getulio Vargas.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Central Press



AXIS DIPLOMATS LEAVE BRAZIL AND PARAGUAY

Here is the scene on the quay as the Axis representatives prepared to leave Brazil after the rupture of diplomatic relations by Brazil (January 28, 1942) and Paraguay (January 30). Baggage is being got ready for the steamer which took them to Lisbon. Brazil declared war upon Germany and Italy on August 22.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

greatest contribution: economic collaboration. For this no complete statistics are available. Of Latin America Hitler said: "We shall find all we want there." There is hardly a war material or a strategic mineral which one or other or several of the 20 republics cannot provide. The vital importance of Latin America to the United States war effort cannot be gainsaid: by December 1941 the U.S.A. was obtaining from the southern republics 34 per cent of her copper, 20 per cent of tungsten, 25 per cent of zinc, 20 per cent of lead, 33 per cent of antimony and important percentages of other strategic minerals. Britain also drew heavily for war materials and for meat and grain.

Products Essential for War Effort

The list of Latin American products essential for war would almost fill a column. Rubber, cotton, wool, copper, manganese, iron, graphite, monazite, platinum petroleum, cobalt, zinc molybdenum, sulphur, asbestos, antimony, tin, bismuth, barium, cinnabar, emery, kaolin, mica, molybdenite, saltpetre, silver, lead, soapstone, talc, wolfram, tungsten, rock crystal, diamonds: the list is formidable. In view of Allied losses of rich territory to Japan one may well ask where the United Nations would stand without the vast potential of Latin American resources. The continent of 20 republics, stretching from the U.S.A. to Cape Horn, occupies a vital strategic position for the United Nations, and is now playing a part even more important than it did in the war of 1914–18. Here is an immense storehouse capable of providing all the sinews of war, one which received the fullest and most detailed attention of Nazi Germany, and was marked down for eventual aggression and enslavement.

It was that "outlook on life" of the Latin Americans which proved to be the decisive factor in bringing them over to the side of the United Nations. It was their willingness to collaborate for common ends which made their collaboration so useful. It was their economic and industrial wealth which rendered them invaluable.

LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS AND THE SECOND GREAT WAR (To the end of 1942)

	Declaration of war against:		
	Germany	*Italy*	*Japan*
Neutral:			
Argentina			
Chile‡			
Belligerents:			
Panama	10-12-41	10-12-41	9-12-41
Salvador	10-12-41	10-12-41	8-12-41
Costa Rica	11-12-41	11-12-41	8-12-41
Cuba	11-12-41	11-12-41	9-12-41
Santo Domingo	11-12-41	11-12-41	8-12-41
Guatemala	11-12-41	11-12-41	9-12-41
Nicaragua	11-12-41	11-12-41	8-12-41
Haiti	12-12-41	12-12-41	8-12-41
Honduras	12-12-41	12-12-41	8-12-41
Mexico	22-5-42	22-5-42	22-5-42
Brazil*	22-8-42	22-8-42	
Diplomatic Relations broken:			
Colombia	19-12-41	19-12-41	19-12-41
Venezuela	31-12-41	31-12-41	31-12-41
Peru	25-1-42	25-1-42	25-1-42
Uruguay	25-1-42	25-1-42	25-1-42
Bolivia†	28-1-42	28-1-42	28-1-42
Ecuador	29-1-42	29-1-42	29-1-42
Paraguay	30-1-42	30-1-42	30-1-42

* Brazil broke off diplomatic relations with Japan on 22-8-42, but by the end of 1942 had not declared war against that country.
† Bolivia declared war in April 1943.
‡ Chile broke off relations with Germany, Italy and Japan on January 20, 1943.



END TO FALANGIST INTRIGUES AT HAVANA

Backed by Nazi funds, local Falangists (pro-Fascists) in Cuba carried out subversive work under the guise of social activities. This photograph shows a Falangist restaurant in Havana which the authorities closed down early in 1941. Cuba declared war upon the Axis a few days after Japan entered the war.
Photo, Keystone

AGREEMENT IMPLEMENTING LEASE-LEND PROGRAMME

The American Lease-Lend Act became law on March 11, 1941. There were somewhat prolonged negotiations between the British and United States Governments before, on February 23, 1943, their representatives signed the far-reaching Agreement the text of which is here printed. It provided for reciprocity, so that when American troops went overseas to Britain or the Dominions aid was afforded to them through the machinery of "Lease-Lend in reverse."

AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA ON THE PRINCIPLES APPLYING TO MUTUAL AID IN THE PROSECUTION OF THE WAR AGAINST AGGRESSION. WASHINGTON, FEBRUARY 23, 1942.

WHEREAS the Governments of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America declare that they are engaged in a cooperative undertaking, together with every other nation or people of like mind, to the end of laying the bases of a just and enduring world peace securing order under law to themselves and all nations;

And whereas the President of the United States of America has determined, pursuant to the Act of Congress of the 11th March, 1941, that the defence of the United Kingdom against aggression is vital to the defence of the United States of America;

And whereas the United States of America has extended and is continuing to extend to the United Kingdom aid in resisting aggression;

And whereas it is expedient that the final determination of the terms and conditions upon which the Government of the United Kingdom receives such aid and of the benefits to be received by the United States of America in return therefor should be deferred until the extent of the defence aid is known and until the progress of events makes clearer the final terms and conditions and benefits which will be in the mutual interests of the United States of America and the United Kingdom, and will promote the establishment and maintenance of world peace;

And whereas the Governments of the United States of America and the United Kingdom are mutually desirous of concluding now a preliminary agreement in regard to the providing of defence aid and in regard to certain considerations which shall be taken into account in determining such terms and conditions, and the making of such an agreement has been in all respects duly authorised, and all acts, conditions and formalities which it may have been necessary to perform, fulfil or execute prior to the making of such an agreement in conformity with the laws either of the United States of America or of the United Kingdom have been performed, fulfilled or executed as required;

The undersigned, being duly authorized by their respective Governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

Article 1. The Government of the United States of America will continue to supply the Government of the United Kingdom with such defence articles, defence services, and defence information as the President shall authorise to be transferred or provided.

Article 2. The Government of the United Kingdom will continue to contribute to the defence of the United States of America and the strengthening thereof, and will provide such articles, services, facilities or information as it may be in a position to supply.

Article 3. The Government of the United Kingdom will not, without the consent of the President of the United States of America, transfer title to, or possession of, any defence article or defence information transferred to it under the Act, or permit the use thereof by anyone not an officer, employee or agent of the Government of the United Kingdom.

Article 4. If, as a result of the transfer to the Government of the United Kingdom of any defence article or defence information, it becomes necessary for that Government to take any action or make any payment in order fully to protect any of the rights of a citizen of the United States of America who has patent rights in and to any such defence article or information, the Government of the United Kingdom will take such action or make such payment when requested to do so by the President of the United States of America.

Article 5. The Government of the United Kingdom will return to the United States of America at the end of the present emergency, as determined by the President, such defence articles transferred under this Agreement as shall not have been destroyed, lost or consumed, and as shall be determined by the President to be useful in the defence of the United States of America or of the Western Hemisphere or to be otherwise of use to the United States of America.

Article 6. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the United Kingdom, full cognisance shall be taken of all property, services, information, facilities or other benefits or considerations provided by the Government of the United Kingdom subsequent to the 11th March, 1941, and accepted or acknowledged by the President on behalf of the United States of America.

Article 7. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the United Kingdom in return for aid furnished under the Act of Congress of the 11th March, 1941, the terms and conditions thereof shall be such as not to burden commerce between the two countries, but to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between them and the betterment of world-wide economic relations. To that end, they shall include provision for agreed action by the United States of America and the United Kingdom, open to participation by all other countries of like mind, directed to the expansion, by appropriate international and domestic measures, of production, employment, and the exchange and consumption of goods, which are the material foundations of the liberty and welfare of all peoples; to the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and to the reduction of tariffs and other trade barriers; and, in general, to the attainment of all the economic objectives set forth in the Joint Declaration made on the 12th August, 1941, by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

At an early convenient date conversations shall be begun between the two Governments with a view to determining, in the light of governing economic conditions, the best means of attaining the above-stated objectives by their own agreed action and of seeking the agreed action of other like-minded Governments.

Article 8. This Agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. It shall continue in force until a date to be agreed upon by the two Governments.

Signed and sealed at Washington in duplicate this 23rd day of February, 1942.

On behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland:

(L.S.) HALIFAX.

His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at Washington.

On behalf of the Government of the United States of America:

(L.S.) SUMNER WELLES.

Acting Secretary of State of the United States Government.

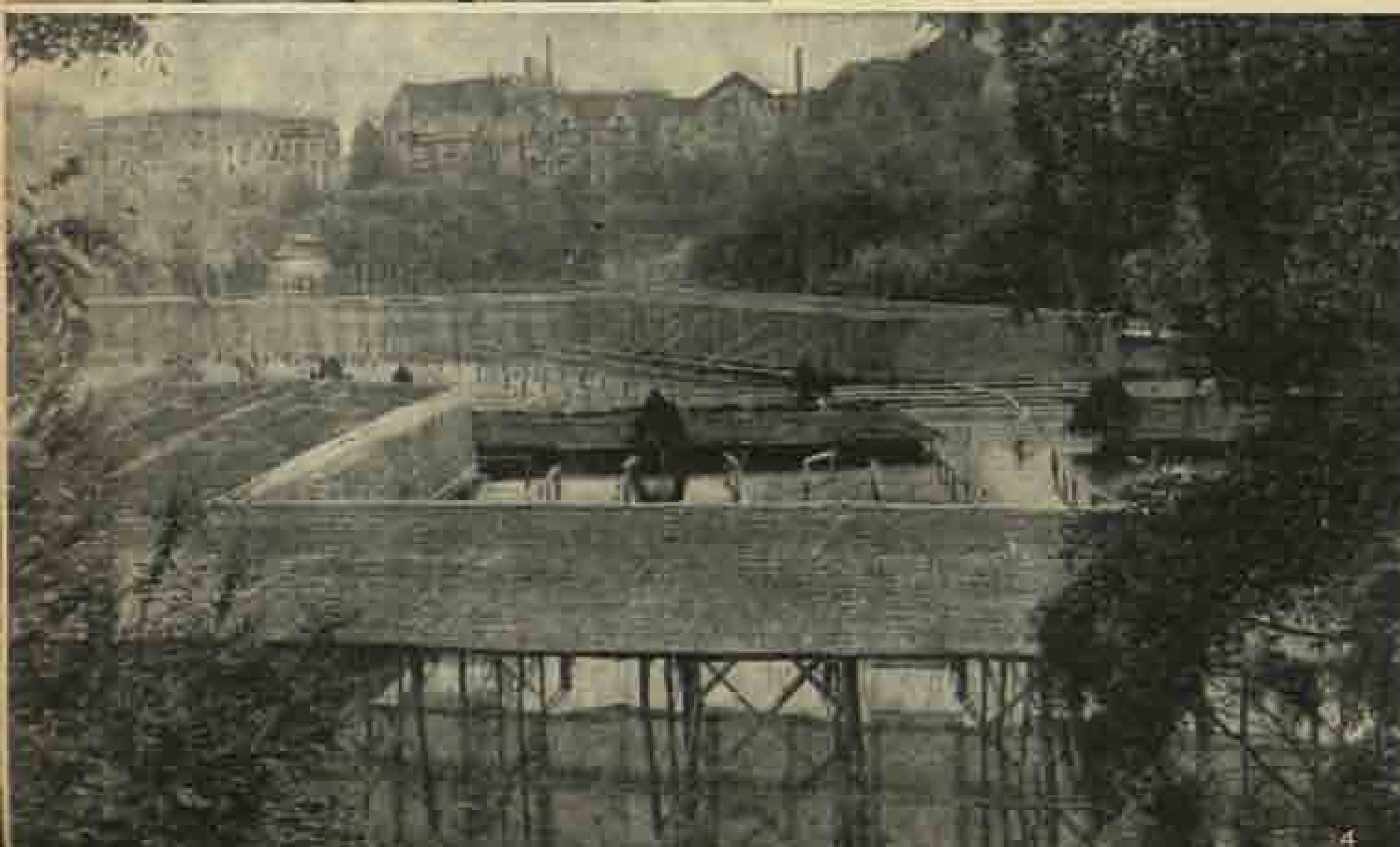






CAMOUFLAGE TRIBUTE TO THE R.A.F.

In and around Berlin camouflage against air attack was carried to extremes. By a lavish use of netting an attempt was made to disguise big building blocks so that roads appeared to run across them (1). The pavement of the great east-west traffic artery (2) was hidden by netting on poles, from which the tops of spruce 'trees' protruded; the Victory Column in Grosser Stern, a square on this same thoroughfare, was painted grey and its base concealed by a timber structure (3). On the lake in the Lietzensee park the Germans erected a suburban landscape, with grassy lawns and red rooftops supported on posts (4). *Photos, Pictorial Press*



TWELVE MONTHS WHICH MARKED THE TURNING OF THE TIDE IN GERMANY

A review of events on the German Home Front during the 12 months which followed the invasion of Russia. This period saw the first substantial setback to Hitler's armies and the failure of the tactical and strategical methods which had gained him lightning success in Western Europe a year earlier. Inside Germany it was a period of questioning and disillusionment

THE vast conquests by Hitler's armies up to the invasion of Russia had been achieved with about a quarter of a million German casualties. Germany would have been well pleased to call a halt and consolidate her gains, and millions of Hitler's people failed to understand why it was necessary to begin a war with Russia, the ally of two years' standing. But when this new venture seemed to be going well the feelings of surprise, bewilderment and anxiety gave place to satisfaction at the success of yet another of the Fuehrer's master-strokes. From the coveted granary of the Ukraine would come corn to swell the diminishing supplies of the Reich; oil of the Caucasus would soon be available in plenty; above all, the Bolshevik bogey would be laid for good and all.

The many who had been perturbed by the Nazi-Soviet Pact of August 1939 became more easy in mind as that episode was put into its proper perspective as a clever piece of typical Hitlerian strategy. Now they knew where they stood. After the Russian armies had been dealt a few knock-out blows the German forces would advance to Leningrad and Moscow and there dictate a peace which would bring all Europe under German control. The Bolshevik regime would collapse, to be replaced by a collaborationist government ready to work with Hitler. The entire business would be settled before the end of the year. It was an alluring prospect.

Hitler's armies drove back the Russians, and at the end of three weeks had reached the Stalin Line marking roughly the partitioning of Poland. Germans were told: "The main strength of the Soviet armies is now broken." By early August Smolensk had fallen. Then the Russian armies began gradually to bring the invaders to a halt. Neither Leningrad nor Moscow fell, and the Stalin government was as firm as a rock. Scorched-earth tactics denied food and shelter to the invaders; somewhat plaintively a German newspaper of the time complained that:

"we have to reckon with the Russians' policy of destroying everything so as to deprive their enemies of every possibility of housing and feeding themselves. . . . Unlike what happened in France (1940) it is no longer the foreign country but Germany herself which is our true base of supply."

This was a different sort of campaign. Instead of sending home silks and furs and luxury foodstuffs the German soldiers were soon to be clamouring for warm garments to keep out the intense cold. From the Ukraine only half a million tons of corn were obtained to supplement the meagre supplies of Germany, where bread shortage had caused the consumption of potatoes to jump from 13 to 23 million tons. Tractors and lorries and farm machinery had to be sent from the Reich to the Ukraine, with the men to work them.

Casualties were on a very different scale, also. Soon the German newspapers began to have pages filled with the traditional "In Memoriam" notices: on this page is a photograph of some from the Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, Berlin; Hamburger Fremdenblatt; Muenchener Neueste Nachrichten, and the Voelkischer Beobachter, Berlin. (Alarmed by the multitude of death notices the authorities tried to control their publication, and prescribed a brief uniform style. But soon people reverted to the more personal form.) The Voelkischer Beobachter later restricted the number of notices to 20 per day. By the middle of 1942, after a year's campaigning in Russia, the German casualties must have totalled at least 1½ million, of which a million had been sustained on the Eastern front. Increasing drafts for the German army and ancillary services soon began to deplete the supply of



FRACTION OF THE PRICE PAID IN RUSSIA

Most of the memorial notices in these cuttings from newspapers published in Berlin, Hamburg and Cologne during the period July 12–16, 1941, refer to German officers killed on the Russian front. There were so many that newspapers had to ration them, and Goebbels ordered a brief, formal notice to be used in future. *Photo, G.P.U.*



FIRST DELIVERY FROM THE COVETED UKRAINE 'GRANARY'

Hitler and other Germans had long coveted the bountiful produce from the fertile black-earth regions of the Ukraine, and one of the first acts of the Nazi gauleiter after German forces entered the country was to dispatch a trainload of butter, poultry, eggs and other food supplies, seen here on arrival in Berlin. As the text explains, the invaders were foiled by the Russian scorched-earth tactics, and obtained little more, while they had to send German labour and machinery to cultivate even that.

Photo, Keystone

labour for agriculture and industry, and this deficit was not fully made up by the war prisoners of various nationalities set to work in the Reich. Three months after the Russian invasion had begun there were over two million foreigners working in Germany, with probably three-quarters of a million prisoners of war. By the spring of 1942 half the agricultural labour was alien, while over the entire field of industry one in four employed was a foreigner.

In his speech in the Berlin Sportspalast on October 3, 1941, Hitler said that Russian prisoners then numbered $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions, while he claimed that more than 14,500 Soviet aircraft had been destroyed or shot down; 22,000 guns and 18,000 tanks had been destroyed. Many German listeners appraised these statements by the claim for aircraft, which was so palpably an exaggeration that little credence was given to the rest. Hitler boasted that "this opponent is already broken and will never rise again." His most important utterance was that about a new offensive which was to finish off Russia before the end of the year:

Hitler's Gross Miscalculations

"For 48 hours a gigantic operation has been in progress which will help to defeat the enemy in the East. I am speaking on behalf of those millions who are at present fighting."

This operation, of course, was the drive against Moscow. Dictated as much as anything by domestic politics and the urgent need to still the mutterings on the German home front, it made swift progress at first but was frustrated by the clever strategy of Zhukov, and in early December Hitler called off the offensive.

The stubborn optimism in official quarters is shown by the strange affair of Dr. Dietrich and the conference of foreign press representatives. Dietrich, who was head of the German official news agency, called the correspondents together for important news—this was on October 9—and told them that 60 to 70 Russian divisions were encircled in pockets, and that Russia was finished, to all intents and purposes, as a fighting power; he wagered his reputation on the accuracy of this statement. A report of the German High Command stated that Timoshenko had "sacrificed the last thoroughly trained and equipped Russian army capable of giving battle on the whole Russian front."

It was small wonder that Germans began to distrust the official announcements blazed out by loudspeakers erected in the main streets, and listened in secret to foreign broadcasts. Goebbels, in his newspaper Das Reich, castigated these "unteachables," as he called them:

"Two death sentences and recent terms of penal servitude prove that some people cannot refrain in the evening, behind closed doors, from secretly turning on to the London broadcasts in order to enrich their political and military knowledge with British misrepresentation."

Such listeners may have heard Russian figures for the German losses on the Eastern Front: over 3,000,000 men killed, wounded or taken prisoner; 9,000 aircraft shot down.

Another matter that worried the German people was the worsening of relations with America. There were uneasy memories of the effect of American participation in 1917. Officially inspired attacks on the President appeared in the newspapers early in July. One journal called Mr. Roosevelt "Number 1 Aggressor." In another was a denial of an imaginary report that Germany would break off diplomatic relations with the U.S.A.

One way in which the Nazis sought to divert wrath from themselves for the Russian set-back was to blame the Jews. Since, it was argued, the Jews in Russia were destroying crops and burning buildings, besides wreaking cruelties on Hitler's soldiers, all Jews in Germany would henceforth be marked and distinguishable for what they were. The yellow badge of the Star of David would be worn on the left breast. But this campaign missed fire, except for organized rowdyism and brutality. People in general were sympathetic with the branded unfortunates, and shopkeepers even risked prosecution for supplying them with more than the permitted amounts of foodstuffs. Simultaneously there started (September 1941) a mass deportation of Jews to Poland. It began in Hanover and soon spread through the old Reich and the Greater Reich. All through the autumn and winter these evictions went on.

Mass Deportations of Jews

Though British raids on Berlin sent hundreds of thousands scurrying to shelters every time the alarm sounded, the physical damage inflicted in the earlier and lighter attacks was not great. Berlin was much camouflaged; dummy suburbs were built in wood and canvas outside the city, and dummy fires were lighted at night to decoy our bombers. The anti-aircraft defences were immensely strong. On the anniversary of the big raids on London the R.A.F. visited Berlin (night of September 7–8, 1941), and from before midnight until nearly 4 a.m. dropped bombs on the centre and suburbs. A month earlier there had been the first of the Russian air attacks, when a single bomber had taken the defences completely by surprise and had dropped two bombs outside the Stettiner railway station. Later there were six more raids by Russian airmen, and though the damage done was not great these events served to increase confusion

and further weaken morale. Concentrated raids on industrial targets were another matter. On July 6–8 1941 there was the devastating three-night attack on Münster, when possibly a quarter of the city was wrecked.

Flak-Towers to Defend Berlin

A feature of the German defences was the concrete and steel tower, a hundred feet high, to accommodate an A.A. battery with its locators and searchlights. The lower part of the structure was designed as a shelter. Such towers were erected at key-points, and other batteries were placed on the tops of specially strengthened existing buildings. Camouflage was carried to enormous lengths, when entire streets would be roofed over with green netting, and lakes and railway stations, for example, would be disguised in similar manner with netting and canvas. At the beginning this may have misled our bombers, but the ruse was soon penetrated.

A cross-section of German morale during the first six months of the Russian venture is given by an analysis of letters to German soldiers on the Eastern Front, made by the Soviet authorities. Some 16,000 letters were examined, all found either on the battlefield or on captured Germans. Letters written from June to August 1941 displayed resentment at the war in 18.5 per cent, increased in November and December to 75 per cent, and in January 1942 to 77 per cent. Three-quarters of the letters sent from Germany to the Eastern front expressed dejection, discontent, complaints and indignation against the war. In the period September–October, 1941, 81 per cent of letters contained complaints connected with losses; 64 per cent complaints about the protractedness of the war; 30 per cent about the air raids on German cities; and 10 per cent about food difficulties. (Soviet War News, April 9, 1942.) It confirms this analysis when we note that Goebbels admonished housewives not to write complaining letters to their menfolk at the front.

Although food rations were meagre there was no dire shortage; the lack of fats pressed most hardly upon all. Meat was cut to three ounces per person per week in August; butter was reduced to two ounces in September, and skimmed milk was substituted for some of the fat ration. Peasants were forbidden to sell their produce otherwise than through authorized channels, but speculators greedily bought up what they could persuade the farmers to sell. In this connexion two peasants were prosecuted for a strange attempt to hoodwink the local police. With a girl in bridal dress between them on the seat they stopped their lorry outside an inn and went inside for refreshment. To an inquiry why the girl would not join them they said that she was going to the neighbouring town to be married by proxy to a soldier in Russia, and felt a little "blue." They stayed drinking so long that a curious policeman strolled up and spoke to the bride-to-be. When she made no reply he investigated—to find that beneath the wedding garments was a slaughtered hog which the peasants were



AT THE ALERT ON A GERMAN FLAK-TOWER

Anti-aircraft batteries were mounted on high towers of steel and concrete sited in cities and industrial areas. In some cases the lower part of the structure was utilized as an air-raid shelter. Other batteries were installed on existing high buildings.

Photo, Associated Press



STAR OF DAVID BADGE FOR JEWS IN GERMAN TERRITORY

A Jewish business man who, like all Jews in Germany, was compelled to wear on the left breast the six-pointed yellow star. Posters on the hoardings at this date (a few months after Hitler's invasion of Russia) told people that 'He who bears this mark is an enemy of our nation.'

Photo, Keystone

taking to sell clandestinely in the town not far away.

In June 1941 the meat ration stood as follows, per week per person:

Ordinary workers	Night workers	Heavy workers	Very heavy workers
400 grams	600 grams	800 grams	1,000 grams

After a reduction in April 1942 the allowance became:

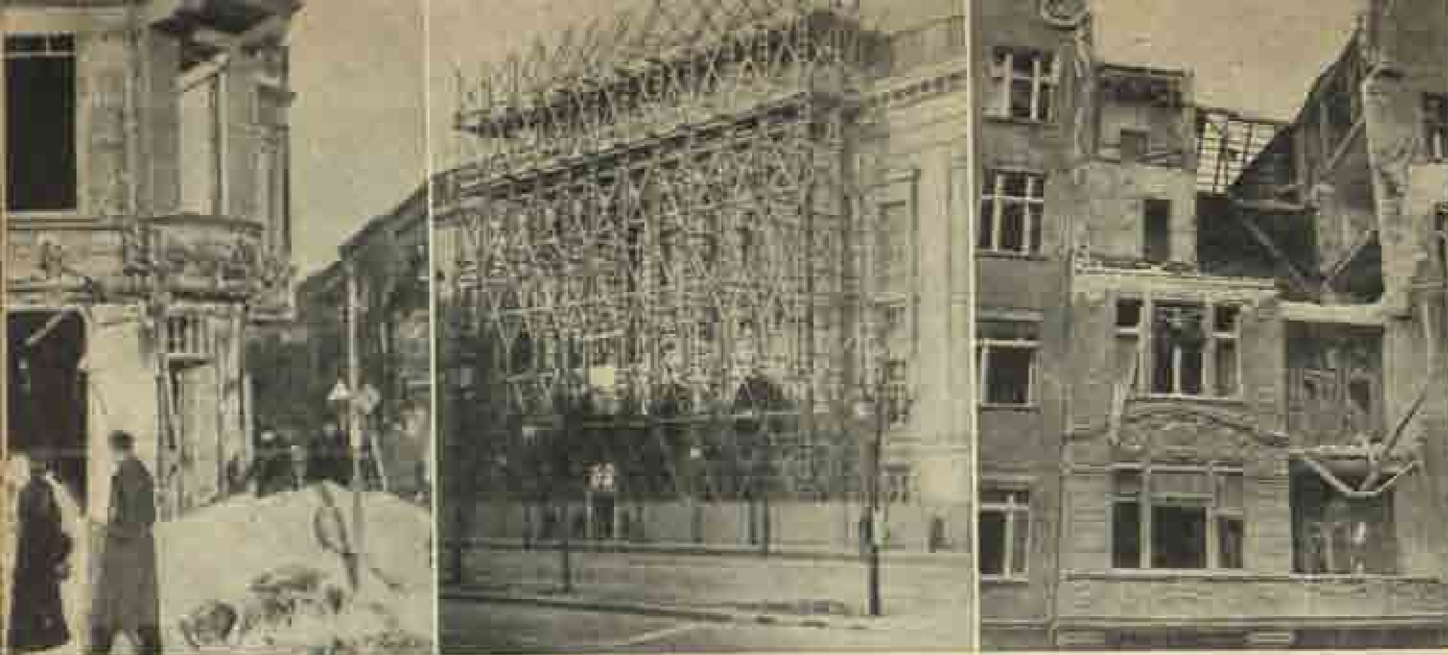
Ordinary workers	Night workers	Heavy workers	Very heavy workers
300 grams	450 grams	600 grams	850 grams

In October 1942 there was an increase, and Goebbels made much of it, coining the slogan "The War Works For Us":

Ordinary workers	Night workers	Heavy workers	Very heavy workers
350 grams	550 grams	700 grams	950 grams

But, as will be observed, the weekly ration still stood below that of June 1941. Moreover, the official rations could not always be obtained at the shops.

In August–September, 1941, there was a significant limitation of "Brownshirt" activities. The S.A. (*Sturm-Abteilung*, i.e. storm-troopers) had been Hitler's striking force during the climb to power, and had been rewarded with honours and high places since that victory of 1933. It had suffered in the purge of 1934, and had seen the swift



BOMB DAMAGE IN BERLIN, DECEMBER 1941

After concealing and minimizing the effects of R.A.F. and Russian raids for a long while the Germans changed their policy and began to 'play-up' bomb-damage in their propaganda—when it had greatly increased in degree and could no longer be hidden from the people. Left, in Tauentzienstrasse after the R.A.F. raid of December 20–21, 1941; centre, repair work on the Prussian State Library building, Unter den Linden; right, in Meinekestrasse.

Photos, Pictorial Press

growth of a rival party army, the S.S. (*Schutz-staffel*, i.e. protective squadron). But, under Viktor Lutze, it went on giving para-military training to hundreds of thousands, and from the beginning of the Second Great War had constituted a leaven of sound party men in each company of troops at the various fronts. In August 1941 (this is given on the authority of Howard K. Smith, Berlin correspondent of United Press*) the official journal of the S.A., the S.A. Mann, was discontinued and a ban was placed on district S.A. meetings. The familiar brown uniforms were henceforth to be worn only on specific orders.

Concurrently there was an enlargement of the S.S.—in numbers, in duties, and in authority. Its supreme commander, Heinrich Himmler, was also chief of the Gestapo (*Geheime Staatspolizei*, i.e. secret State police).

Hitler's Personal Army

The Waffen-S.S. (armed or military S.S.) was thrown into the struggle on the Eastern front, in time of emergency, though its nominal duties were policing the region of combat and dealing with guerillas and underground enemies. This organization was built up into a separate army numbering probably half a million, with divisions in the occupied countries and others in Germany itself. These were in addition to the ordinary S.S., occupied with police work such as the rounding up of Jews, supervision of factories and other industrial concerns, and various duties connected with civilian Germany. Hitler soon withdrew his Waffen-S.S. divisions from the Russian front, where it seems they had been thrown in only when it seemed likely that a swift decision might have been possible. Probably the main object of this force was to serve as a buckler between the leading Nazis and any possible uprising. With its separate training establishments and its unorthodox methods of recruiting, the Waffen-S.S. stood apart from the Reichswehr, with a direct individual allegiance to Hitler. It could be employed, if need should arise, as his personal army against the Reichswehr generals and their following.

On November 8, 1941, Hitler made his customary oration to the Old Guard of the Munich Putsch of 1923. He was still making fantastic claims of success in the Russian campaign, and still apparently confident that his glowing prophecies would be fulfilled. Boldly he declared: "Never before has a gigantic empire been smashed in a shorter period than has Soviet Russia this time." After stating that the Germans had taken 3,600,000 prisoners he went on to calculate that on this basis there must have been a total loss of at least 8 to 10 million Soviet soldiers. "No army can ever recover from such losses, not even the Russians." Russian territory occupied, Hitler went on to claim, represented an area about five times as large as England, comprising about 60 to 75 per cent of all industries and raw materials in Russia. About Leningrad Hitler made an admission and a boast.

> "We are now on the defensive, and the other side must attempt to break through. I shall certainly not sacrifice one more man than is absolutely necessary. The city is encircled and no one will ever free it. It will fall into our hands."

A fortnight later Rostov was recaptured, and the Russian counter-offensive became general along the entire front early in December. But official propaganda was still in the strain of cheerful confidence. The fact was, of course, that the blitzkrieg had failed and that instead there had to be waged a long war in which infantry would now have to take the shock and do the hardest work. Official spokesmen began to lift the veil a few weeks later, when it must have become obvious that the truth could no longer be concealed from the people at home. A winter campaign with all its horrors and hardships—its fears and worries for the womenfolk—was unavoidable.

Switch in Propaganda

Writing in the Voelkischer Beobachter in mid-December, an official historian admitted that the German High Command had underestimated the strength and efficiency of the enemy; that they had belatedly come to realize that, man for man, the Russian soldier was at least the equal of the German. Then official propaganda changed to a stressing of the discomforts, even miseries, of the men at the front as the temperature fell to 25 degrees below freezing point. On December 11 Hitler addressed the Reichstag. He announced the Axis declaration of war against the United States, and said that Germany had signed an agreement with Italy and Japan not to conclude an armistice or

* "Last Train from Berlin." London, Cresset Press.

peace with the United States or Great Britain except in complete mutual agreement. He made the usual fantastic statement about Russian casualties and losses, and put those for Germany at: 162,314 dead; 577,767 wounded; and 33,334 missing. "On the Eastern front it was only the outbreak of winter that could check the German operations; but with the coming of summer there would be no further check." The German soldiers had fought in the winter storms of November and December, freezing in snow and ice. Most of his speech was given up to abuse of President Roosevelt.

The German radio hinted at coming movements to the west, when the Russian front had been stabilized. The Westdeutsche Beobachter spoke of the complete change in the world picture.

"After June 22 we turned again towards the east. Today, six months afterwards, we know that nothing was as we had expected it to be."

On December 12 Das Reich (Goebbels's organ) said:

"Our German unity is only of recent date. We are still bearing the scars from the divisions of the old party politics. Carefully and jealously we have to watch that they do not reopen even in a single place."

The plain warning given by Hitler in his speech had pointed to considerable apprehension on the Home front:

"At a time when thousands of our best men are dying nobody must expect to live who tries to depreciate the sacrifices made at the front. No matter under what camouflage he tries to disturb this German front or to undermine the resistance of our people, or to weaken the authority of the regime, or to sabotage the achievements on the Home front, he shall die for it."

In a Berlin communiqué of December 17 there came the news that shortenings of the front were being undertaken according to plan for the transition from offensive operations to positional warfare in winter. On December 19 Hitler dismissed Field-Marshal von Brauchitsch and himself took over the command of the German army. The official proclamation declared that reasons of State demanded that all powers should be concentrated in one hand.

"The realization of an inward call and his own will to take upon himself responsibility weighed with the statesman Adolf Hitler when he resolved to be his own Generalissimo." The announcement went on to enumerate the factors which had "induced the Fuehrer to follow his intuitions and to influence in the strongest possible manner the operations and equipment of the decisions in this sphere."

Hitler made a long appeal to the German army at the same time.

Goebbels next day (20th) broadcast an appeal for gifts of warm clothing for soldiers at the front, and read a message from Hitler. Door-to-door collections of clothing would be made from December 27 to January 4—felt-lined boots, jack boots, socks, stockings, underclothing, pullovers, scarves, gloves, blankets and ground sheets. "Those at home," said Goebbels, "will not deserve a single peaceful hour if even one soldier . . . were to be exposed to the rigours of winter without adequate equipment."

On the night of December 20-21 there was a British raid which underlined the growing power of the R.A.F. A vivid description was given by Joseph W. Grigg, Jr., of the United Press staff.*

"There were two separate alarms, and planes flew over the city at intervals for the greater part of the night. The flak barrage, which had been strengthened since its early fiascos, kept up a non-stop crashing which rocked the office where I happened to have night duty. The all-clear sounded at 7 a.m., but as the weary, under-slept Berliners crawled grumbling from their shelters, a British plane turned about, flew back, and dropped a couple more bombs. A great cloud of smoke billowed over the downtown district from a fire in a big department store in the Alexanderplatz, a stone's throw from the Secret Police headquarters. Two bombs, aimed possibly at the near-by Zoo station, landed plumb in the middle of the broad Tauentzienstrasse, in the West End, blew out store windows right and left and smashed through on to the subway tracks beneath. Factories started work hours late that morning, papers were not delivered, there was no bread in the bakeries, the whole life of the capital was in chaos until early noon."



On Christmas Eve Goebbels broadcast in gloomy strain, telling the Home front to become worthy of the soldiers at the front. Ribbentrop painted the horrors and misfortunes which would ensue if the people did not support the soldiers in their fight. Not only the Nazi regime but the entire people were involved.

It was Germany's hardest Christmas. The Frankfurter Zeitung, after saying



COUNTING HIS GAINS

In a speech at the Berlin Sportspalast on October 3, 1941, Hitler made extravagant claims of successes, and said that Russia was already broken and would never rise again. Below, left, a German sentry on the Russian front wears a woman's fur coat. All sorts of strange apparel were used to supplement inadequate official issues.

Photos, Associated Press

this, pointed out that the tasks that the German people had to face were never greater and graver. The Hamburger Fremdenblatt said:

"There had never been anything harder than the fight of the infantry before Moscow. In their worn-out overcoats, with green hoods on their heads full of frozen breath, steel helmets covered with old shirts, they look more like old peasant women."

This calculated gloominess had a purpose. Nazi propaganda could not ignore

* "This is the Enemy," Frederick Oechsner and others. Wm. Heinemann, Ltd., London.

the prevailing depression and discontent on the Home front, and the next best thing was to sublimate this mood and direct the mawkish sentiment of which German character is so largely compounded into a harmless, and perhaps useful, channel. By dwelling on the hardships of the menfolk in Russia attention might be diverted from the grotesque mismanagement by Hitler and the High Command which had brought about the catastrophe that threatened on the Eastern front. However, grumbles such as those in the following extract from Das Reich show that a substantial number of people were not toeing the line:

"But certain people, especially those who are little affected by the war, have grown accustomed to take their small, often negligible, daily troubles much too seriously. . . . When, at Christmas, railwaymen have to carry potatoes, coal and vegetables for the Home front, and arms, munitions, woollen clothing and provisions to the battle front, and have therefore no time to convey pleasure-seekers to Oberhof or Garmisch, the grievance becomes the subject of hours of excited discussion. . . . They seem to regard the soldier as one whose business it is to win the conflict for them. Some people complain when Deutschlandsender is switched off because of air-raid dangers, as if they really could not be expected to take the trouble to find some other German broadcasting station."



NEW HEAD FOR THE 'ORGANIZATION-TODT'

Dr. Fritz Todt (he held the military rank of Major-General) was killed in an air accident during February 1942. He was succeeded by Professor Speer (right), here seen being congratulated by Goering (centre) on his appointment as Minister of Munitions, and Inspector of Roads and Water and Power.

Right-hand photo, Sport & General

Bearing in mind the drilling and training and regimentation the Germans had been subject to during the pre-war and war years under Nazi rule, it is remarkable that there were so many grumblers that Goebbels had to take them to task in this way.

So the New Year opened with the Eastern armies involved in a bitter conflict in which for the first time they had to yield ground to the enemy. Euphemisms like "shortening of the front" and "positional warfare" did not delude the Home front. The bubble of German invincibility had been pricked; the advantage gained by a treacherous onslaught and the long years of arming had been evened out. It was now indeed a fight for existence against the ever-growing might of the Allies. The war might go on for years more. Already there was official talk of a coming spring offensive. The thoughts of the older people went back to the grim years of 1917 and 1918—to the defeat and the lean decade that followed.

Various changes were made in the army commands. Von Bock had been retired in December at about the time of Von Brauchitsch's dismissal. On January 17 came a brief announcement of the death of Field-Marshal Walther von Reichenau, Commander-in-Chief of the army group before Moscow. He had had a stroke, said the terse official statement, and died on his way back to Germany. Reichenau was in his early fifties, an athletic and robust man who had distinguished himself in the Polish campaign, where he swam the Vistula at the head of his men, and in the drive through the Low Countries and France. After the collapse of France he had been promoted Field-Marshal. At the close of the 1914–18 war he had been a Major. Von Bock was brought back to succeed Reichenau. Other leaders, including Von Rundstedt and Guderian, had dropped out owing, it was stated, to ill-health, which seems a flimsy excuse, since several were soon reinstated in commands.

Purge of German Generals



GOEBBELS INSPECTS AN EMERGENCY WAREHOUSE IN COLOGNE

Testimony to the damage inflicted by R.A.F. raids on industrial buildings, the German caption of this photograph states that it shows a temporary warehouse established after the original one had been wrecked by British bombs. On the shelves and benches are service blankets. Goebbels at front, left.

Photo, Associated Press

Early in January it was given out that half a million fur coats, $2\frac{1}{2}$ million pairs of stockings, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ million jerseys had been collected for the soldiers in Russia. A strange item in this list was 3,714,630 shawls. On the 30th, in Berlin, Hitler addressed Nazi party members and some soldiers from the Eastern front. He said that the worst was behind in Russia, and in the spring

they would start rebuilding. "How this year will end, I do not know," he went on. "Whether it will bring victory I do not know . . . but wherever the enemy appears we shall break him. This year will again be a year of victory." As in other speeches, he insisted that there would not be another 1918. Doubtless he realized only too well that in the minds of older Germans there was ever present the spectre of defeat. However much many of them might dislike the Nazi regime they would support it and him rather than face the prospect of a military collapse like that of 1918, with its aftermath of hunger, humiliation and inflation. Hitler pointed out that the only road open to Germany was that of fighting and success, which was true enough as long as the Germans adhered to him and his confederates.



DOENITZ WELCOMES JAPANESE SUBMARINE COMMANDER

The German caption claims that a Japanese 'submarine-cruiser' visited a 'naval stronghold' on the French Atlantic coast and that such craft were cooperating with the Germans in the Atlantic. Admiral Doenitz, commander of the German submarine forces, is here seen as he greets the Japanese commander.

Photo, Associated Press

Major-General Fritz Todt, Minister of Munitions and the organizer of the vast work behind the German fighting fronts, was killed in an air accident in February, and Professor Speer was appointed to succeed him. Another appointment, a few weeks earlier, had been that of Jakob Werlin as inspector-general of the motor vehicle department, responsible only to Hitler.

Death of Dr. Todt

Transport problems had been worsened by the R.A.F. attacks and the consequent transfer of many manufacturing plants eastward. Over the head of Seldte, Minister of Labour, a controller was appointed in the person of Dr. Mansfeld; at the end of March Mansfeld was superseded by Fritz Sauckel, Gauleiter of Thuringia.

Evidently more forceful methods than those of Mansfeld were needed. Ley, leader of the Labour Front, had been touring the country to stimulate production, and had told workers that, though they often worked 16 hours daily, they must demonstrate to the world that, like the soldiers of Germany, they were the best in the world. The Labour Ministry invented the slogan: "Two to Produce as Much as Three." In April Sauckel issued a decree that school children from the age of ten upwards were to work on the land "in short spells or uninterruptedly, according to agricultural requirements." This was to be in force until November.

A reduction in fat, meat and bread rations was announced on March 19, and came into force on April 6 (see page 2163). It was due, said the official explanation, to the fact that very large numbers of foreign workers and prisoners of war had to be fed. Later, Goebbels stated in Das Reich that a postponement of such cuts would have resulted, within six to eight weeks, in more serious difficulties in the food situation. Weather conditions had been bad for agriculture during the previous two years; potatoes were short everywhere, and some towns had no vegetables. (Potatoes were soon afterwards rationed at 5 lb. per head per week.) On May 23 Walther Darre, Minister for Agriculture, was replaced by Backe.

Hitler spoke at a Berlin commemoration of the war dead on March 15, 1942:

> "Only today do we realize the full extent of the preparations of our enemies. Whatever fate lies in store for us it can only be less onerous than what lies behind us. The Bolshevists, who could not defeat the German troops and their allies in one winter, will be annihilatingly defeated by us in the coming summer."

On April 26 Hitler addressed the Reichstag. He asked for new powers—

> "the legal right to compel everyone to do his duty, and if, in my opinion and in accordance with my conscience, he does not carry out his duties, to dismiss him irrespective of who he is or what acquired rights he may possess. . . . I therefore expect German justice to understand that the German nation does not exist for the convenience of that justice, but that justice exists to serve the nation."

Here was a clear and unmistakable exposition of the Nazi creed. Goering, who spoke next, named Hitler supreme law lord, and a decree to this effect was approved by the Reichstag. For the disasters on the Russian front Hitler blamed the early and severe winter—the worst winter, he said, for 140 years. "We have mastered a fate that broke another man 130 years ago," he said, referring to the defeat of Napoleon I. As to the air war, he charged Britain with having started the bombing of civilians, and said that from now on he would repay blow for blow.

Beginning with the big raid on Luebeck on the night of March 28-29, the R.A.F. had gone on to batter Rostock on four consecutive nights (April 23-26), while Augsburg had been bombed in daylight on April 17. The Luftwaffe countered, on the night of April 24-25, with a "reprisal" raid on Exeter—a fairly safe operation. Then, after our thousand-bomber raid on Cologne (May 30-31), Hitler sent his airmen to attack Canterbury the following night. But the R.A.F. made two more thousand-bomber attacks—on Essen (June 1-2) and Bremen (June 25-26)—while Luebeck and Flensburg were bombed in daylight on July 16. At last, under these massive blows, Germany's war industry began to suffer, while civilian morale was affected. Cold comfort was given by a Kiel newspaper which said that the best shelter was a strong heart, and not concrete. After the Rostock bombings the Hamburger Fremdenblatt said that it was entirely senseless to travel to Rostock, because the inhabitants left long ago for places like Mecklenburg.

'Baedeker' Raids on Britain

The A.R.P. services seem to have gone to pieces under the heavy blows oft repeated, for at the end of May, after the raid on Cologne, Himmler took over control and the S.S. everywhere were placed in charge of A.R.P.

The move suggests that workers were becoming restive and were leaving the neighbourhood of much-bombed towns. Evacuation was strictly regulated; women and even children, "needed for work in the town," were obliged to remain.

In Hitler's speeches and in other official utterances there was apparent a realization that until Britain had been brought to her knees Germany's gains could not be consolidated. Indeed, the "New Order" could hardly proceed until the island enemy had been laid low once for all, and the chosen weapon was the U-boat, since the Luftwaffe had failed. On January 30 Hitler had said that:

"on the seas our submarines have been smashing Roosevelt's plans. He intended . . . to drive the German submarine from the ocean and to leave only a tiny channel to be defended by the British; and this was the reason for the fall in the sinkings of vessels. It was not due to a shortage of submarines; on the contrary, the number of submarines had increased enormously."

The Japanese attack had relieved Germany of fear in the American quarter, he continued.

The man entrusted with submarine warfare was Vice-Admiral Karl Doenitz, U-boat Oberleutnant during the First Great War. On October 1918 he had been captured in the Mediterranean off Malta, and went into a British prison camp till the end of the war. A zealot to whom the rising Nazi party gave free rein, he built up a great submarine force and introduced the system by which these craft could be constructed in quantity inland and transported in parts to the assembly yards at the coast—much as is done with mass-produced cargo vessels today. At the head of the German navy was Grand Admiral Erich Raeder, who had built up the fleets as Doenitz had the underwater squadrons. (Later Raeder was to be superseded by Doenitz, who was 15 years his junior.) In October 1941 Hitler had spoken of a change in war production, and had said that in large sections Germany had been able to stop manufacture. The truth was probably that a shift had been made to the production of U-boat parts and components.

The U-boat squadrons moved to the waters off America, and for a time had things much their own way. There was a shortage of escort vessels, and U.S. merchantmen had at that date not been provided with defensive armament. In his speech of April 26 Hitler said: "German U-boats are making themselves more and more felt. Numbers increase from month to month in a regular flow. Today the highest figure in the world war is left far behind."

Aus deutscher Kriegsgefangenschaft

Der französische General Giraud geflüchtet

Berlin, 25. April

Der französische General Giraud, der sich in deutscher Kriegsgefangenschaft befand, ist aus der Festung Königstein geflüchtet.

Dem General war wegen seines Gesundheitszustandes größere Bewegungsfreiheit gewährt worden. Er machte sich dieses Entgegenkommen zunutze und entfloh.

100 000 RM. Belohnung

Jeder, der dem entflohenen General bei seiner Flucht behilflich ist, wird mit dem Tode bestraft. Für die Ergreifung des Generals sind 100 000 RM. Belohnung ausgesetzt. Der nebenstehend abgebildete General Giraud ist 1,82 bis 1,85 m groß, schlank, hat graue Haare und grauen Schnurrbart und spricht deutsch mit französischem Akzent. Sachdienliche Mitteilungen nimmt jede Wehrmacht- und Polizeidienststelle entgegen.



General Giraud

100,000 REICHSMARKS FOR HIS RECAPTURE

Dated April 25, 1942, this German advertisement offers the sum for the recapture of General Henri Giraud. Taken prisoner on May 20, 1940 (see illus., p. 856), he had been a prisoner of war in the fortress of Koenigstein, whence he escaped in April and made his way via Switzerland to Vichy. In November 1942 he escaped from France by submarine and went to North Africa to command the French forces fighting there with the Allies.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

The other main objective, after the submarine war against Britain and America, was the checking of convoys to Russia. In February the battleships "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" had broken out of Brest, together with the heavy cruiser "Prinz Eugen." They had reached the comparative safety of North Sea ports, though battered en route and after getting there. From German and Norwegian harbours surface craft and submarines, aided by aircraft, sallied out to shell, bomb and torpedo Allied merchantmen and escorts on the northern route to Russia, for much aid was reaching the Soviet by this route. But the traffic could not be stopped.

In conclusion, a few facts may be given about Germany's relations with her allies and victims; more will be found in other Chapters dealing specifically with those countries. Quisling and Terboven visited Hitler on February 13, 1942, and were made much of. Quisling, before returning to Norway, proclaimed that country's fidelity, gratitude and devotion to Hitler. From Rumania, Antonescu had been summoned, and was received by Hitler in company with Keitel and Ribbentrop on February 11; nothing but the usual platitudes about "faithful friendship" and "fighting in brotherhood side by side" were published about this meeting, but it probably meant new demands upon Rumania's man-power and industry, and it was said that 16 divisions had been asked for by Germany. Of different stuff was the conference between Hitler and Mussolini at Salzburg (April 29–May 1). Military and air leaders of both sides were present at the discussions, which were concerned mainly with the Mediterranean situation or with demands for reinforcements on the Russian front. German newspapers went out of their way to deny rumours that Italy wanted a separate peace. From Switzerland Hitler was said to have demanded 75 locomotives as a price for continued coal supplies.

On June 4, 1942, Hitler visited Marshal Mannerheim, ostensibly to greet him on his 75th birthday. Leading generals accompanied the Fuehrer. The Finns had been growing restive and had shown that they were ready, for their part, to conclude peace. The German set-back in the past winter had alarmed Finland, and Hitler's visit had the object of allaying this apprehension. In this he seems to have succeeded, but the position, both economic and military, at the end of June was a difficult one for the Nazis. All would depend on the fortunes of the coming offensive, for which there had been unparalleled preparation during the last few months.

NAZI-OCCUPIED EUROPE: DENMARK, NORWAY, BELGIUM AND HOLLAND

Covering the eighteen months July 1941 to December 1942, this Chapter is based on information made available by the Free Governments and the Danish Council in London. The story is necessarily incomplete, for reasons of security but it sheds a light on the perils, hardships, courage and achievements of our loyal allies languishing under Gestapo rule

Allowing for local diversities, Nazi policy in the occupied countries of the west was similar in fundamentals. As long as there was a reasonable chance of collaboration or of tolerance by the inhabitants and local administrations the German officials permitted a degree of autonomy and a semblance of freedom, while taking all military measures which seemed at the moment to be necessary. In the Netherlands and Belgium they had been eager to persuade the people that the war had ended, and that once the fact of German conquest had been accepted, life would go on much as before. Obviously this move, if it succeeded, would save the enemy much in effort and manpower: resources and materials would be available for the Reich, and the policing of the occupied territories would be easy. So, with the aid of local quislings, an attempt was made to mollify, and the Nazi rule was light unless resistance was encountered. During the twelve months July 1941 to June 1942 the military prospects of the Allies were not rosy, and the spectre of a second front in Europe had not yet arisen to perturb the enemy. He could afford to go slowly with the dragooning of the conquered lands. But as the months went on his policy was obviously coloured by fear of an eventual Allied invasion.

Apart from measures such as the building of defensive works and the strengthening of garrisons, two other important steps were taken to hamstring the local patriots. Food supplies were cut down in stages to the point at which they merely permitted a bare subsistence; men and women were drawn away for forced labour in Germany; a rigid control was clamped down upon workers, so that any opposition or recalcitrance was punished by the cancellation of relief or the withdrawal of rations. Extreme reprisals were taken on the relatives of men who slipped the country to join the Allies. Gradually a docketing of ex-soldiers was carried out, to be followed later by wholesale imprisonment or deportation to prevent any assistance to an Allied landing force. The population was evacuated from "danger" points, so that no collusion with the liberators could be possible. It seems an inescapable conclusion that the conquered peoples were deliberately brought to near-starvation point in order to cripple resistance.

How Patriots Were Persecuted



RIBBENTROP WELCOMES SCAVENIUS

Erik Scavenius, the Danish Foreign Minister, was summoned to Berlin in October 1942 to receive Nazi orders, and a fortnight later he formed a new administration of which he became Premier. Above, he is seen on arrival at Berlin a year before (November 24, 1941) to sign the Anti-Comintern Pact: Ribbentrop (right) is greeting him.

Photo, Associated Press

Where it suited Nazi policy a country was left for some time with a certain measure of autonomy, political and economic—and for just as long as the results warranted. For two-and-a-half years Denmark was favoured among Nazi victims, and the Germans instanced her as a shining example of the benefits to be derived from compliance with the "New Order." But towards the end of 1942 this policy altered. In October Erik Scavenius, Danish Foreign Minister, was summoned to Berlin to receive the latest German demands, one of which was that a new government must be formed forthwith. On November 8 Scavenius became Premier in an administration selected to please the enemy. Three days earlier Karl Rudolf Best had replaced Von Renthe-Fink as German Ambassador at Copenhagen. Best was an officer of the S.S. and the Gestapo, with little experience of diplomatic service. Other German demands were for more Danish workers to go to Germany, for increased supplies of manufactured products, and for cargo ships to be built in Danish yards.

Riddle of Erik Scavenius

About Scavenius there were conflicting opinions. After he had signed the Anti-Comintern Pact at Berlin on November 25, 1941, he was regarded as a traitor and had to return by a devious route to the Danish capital. But Scavenius was merely carrying out the wish of his Government, to which the King consented—though the extreme pressure exerted by the Germans left no alternative but that of open resistance to the Nazis. Gunnar Leistikow, former foreign editor of Social-Demokraten, Copenhagen, regarded the action of Scavenius in forming the new Cabinet of November 8 as "a last attempt to stave off—for a time at least—the complete Nazification of the country."*

Before the war Britain had taken half of Denmark's exports of dairy produce. Germany at once emptied the country of foodstuffs and other commodities over and above a subsistence margin. Then there began a progressive killing off of livestock. In April 1942 the production of pork and eggs had dwindled to one-third. A million pigs had been commandeered, alive or in carcass, representing nearly the entire annual production. By the middle of 1942 some 50,000 Danes were working in Germany. By the end of 1942 the Danish National Bank had paid out to farmers, shipowners, industrialists and others £115,000,000 since the invasion, representing goods delivered or services rendered to the

* "Foreign Affairs," January 1943, New York



COPENHAGEN'S WARM GREETING TO KING CHRISTIAN

In extremely difficult circumstances Christian X did his utmost to cheer his people and to avert some of the evils of Nazi rule. Here he is seen on the thirtieth anniversary of his accession to the throne. Not long afterwards he met with a riding accident and on October 27, 1942, temporarily handed over his duties to Crown Prince Frederik.

Photo, Associated Press

Germans. All that the Bank had to show as *cover* was a credit of equal amount on the Clearing Account in Berlin. Fuel rations (Denmark was dependent on Germany for coal) for domestic consumption were very small. The cost-of-living index rose by 65 per cent, while wages increased by 20 per cent only: many commodities became too dear for the lower wage groups.

Yet, so long as the Danish Government could satisfy Nazi demands, the country still had a fair measure of freedom, while her neighbour Norway writhed under the brutalities of the Gestapo and the heavy hand of the occupying army and officials. Small wonder that Government and King strove to avert the ultimate evil of Gestapo rule. King Christian X, in the thirtieth year of his reign, had to hand over his duties to Crown Prince Frederik in October 1942, because of illness which followed a riding accident. The King, when changes of Cabinet were enforced, firmly refused to accept any Government which had not a Parliamentary sanction. In the crisis of November 1942 Parliament had had to choose between Scavenius and the quisling Frits Clausen, Leader of the Danish Nazis. The King showed in many ways his abhorrence of Nazi methods. When Danish torpedo-boats had to be given up to the Germans he shook hands with each of the crew, some 800 in all.

Danish Royal House

The mettle of Norway's resistance to the Nazis was demonstrated by the attitude of the Church, which as long ago as October 1940 had set up a Council under the seven bishops, the first step in the creating of a Church Front to protect religious liberties. In the following January these ecclesiastics, led by Bishop Berggrav, had protested to Skancke, the quisling Minister of Church and Education, against the violence and brutality of the Hird (quisling storm-troopers) and against the Nazi decree which abolished the right of doctors, lawyers and clergy to retain secrecy about matters confided to them in the execution of their duty—the Magna Carta of conscience, the bishops termed it. The Norwegian Clergymen's Union had been one of the 43 trade and professional organizations which had signed the manifesto to Reichskommissar Terboven on May 15, 1941 (see page 1788).

In September Skancke circularized the clergy asking them to sign an appeal in connexion with the so-called crusade against Bolshevism and international Godlessness. Since practically all the clergy refused to sign, the Minister had to let the matter drop.

Things came to a crisis on February 1, 1942, at Trondheim. A quisling bishop, Blessing Dahle, was to conduct a Festival Service to mark Vidkun Quisling's appointment that same day as Minister-President, or Premier. Dr. Fjellbu, Dean of Trondheim, postponed his own service until 2 p.m.; Dahle preached to a small congregation of local pro-Nazis at 11 a.m. As soon as Dahle had finished, the cathedral began to fill with worshippers to hear the Dean, but the police closed the doors.

Outside, for half an hour, thousands of people, including nearly the entire clergy of Trondheim, sang hymns and the National Anthem; within, Dr. Fjellbu preached to those who had gained admission before the police had intervened. A few days later the Dean was dismissed. On February 23 the seven bishops met at Oslo; next day they resigned their administrative offices, while maintaining the right to exercise their spiritual vocation. All the clergy but two supported this action, as did religious bodies throughout Norway. Dean Hygen, of Oslo, was asked by Skancke to take over Bishop Berggrav's functions, but refused and resigned his own office. At Easter other deans and the clergy resigned in a body. Early in April Bishop Berggrav was arrested.

Church Crisis at Trondheim

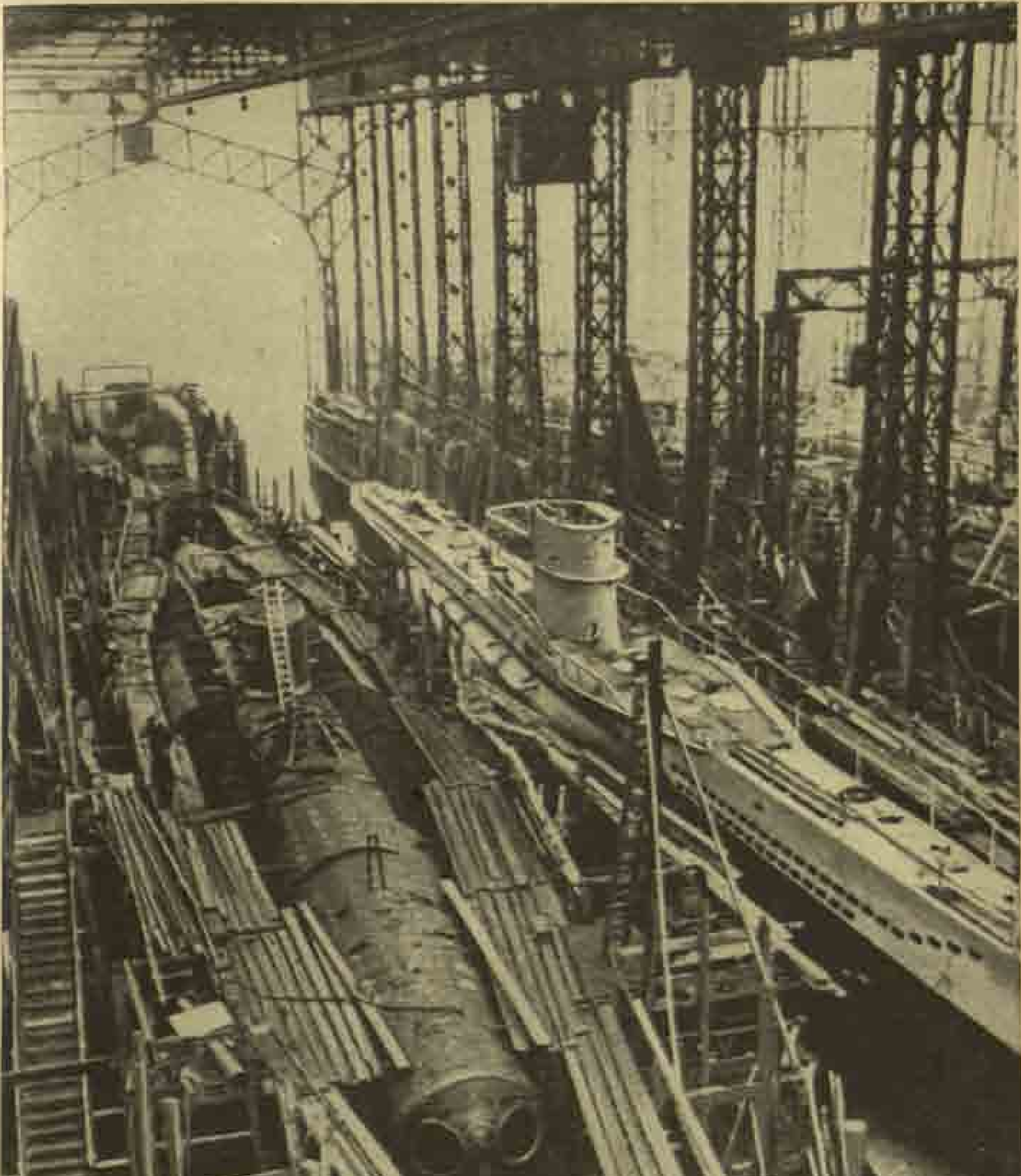
A Provisional Church Council was formed, and in August discussions were opened with the quisling Church authorities, but on September 26 the leaders of the Norwegian Church abandoned the discussions. The obstacle was the demand that, before any negotiations could be opened, the bishops should give a declaration in which they publicly



DANISH NAZIS FOR RUSSIA

Less than 2,000 Danes volunteered for the Frikorps Danmark, recruited to serve with the Germans in Russia. Here, in imitation Nazi garb, are some of the earliest to join. The Danish Nazis, who had three out of 149 seats in Parliament, were headed by Frits Clausen, a former doctor elected to Parliament in 1939.

Photo, Associated Press



MORE U-BOATS FOR THE ONSLAUGHT ON ALLIED SHIPPING

Admiral Karl Doenitz, commander of the German submarine forces, was a pioneer in the mass production of underwater craft in inland engineering works and their assembly at coastal shipyards. By means of these comparatively small and simplified submarines he hoped to break the strength of the United Nations. Here are some nearing completion—probably at a French Atlantic base.

Photo, Keystone



ANTI-TANK GUN IN STREET FIGHTING H. Schaurpel



MACHINE-GUNNERS Franz Eichhorst



MAY 10th, 1940 Paul Padua

HOW GERMAN ARTISTS SAW THE WAR

Many examples of the widely varied output of British war artists have already been given in this work, and in this and the opposite page German art during the war period is illustrated. The difference in outlook and treatment is illuminating. Whereas British painters were obviously entirely untrammelled by any restriction of style or handling, with the result that their work was both spontaneous and convincing, the German artists exhibit a portentous solemnity and almost slavish realism to which they have evidently been condemned by the dictates of official Nazi culture. With them the heroic gesture is predominant and the traditional glorification of the soldier heavily emphasized. As records of contemporary military uniforms these German paintings are no doubt excellent, but they scarcely set down for posterity the reactions of a great nation in the throes of a life-or-death struggle for existence.

Paintings exhibited at the Munich Art Exhibition, 1941 and 1942



LIGHT MACHINE-GUNNER E. Hartman



ADVANCE IN THE WEST Wilhelm Sauter



BEARER OF KNIGHTS CROSS TO IRON CROSS OF THE BODYGUARD OF ADOLF HITLER — Ernst Krause



IN THE ATLANTIC — Claus Bergen

2173



Photo, Central Press

NEW MERCHANTMEN TO REPLACE NORWAY'S WARTIME LOSSES

Launched at a Scottish shipyard on December 21, 1941, by Norway's King, the 'Kong Haakon VII' was the first replacement to her Merchant Marine which, by this date, had lost 300 of its ships in war service for the Allies. Of the fine fleet of Norwegian tankers Mr. Noel Baker (of the Ministry of War Transport) in April 1942 said that they were to the Battle of the Atlantic what the Spitfires were to the Battle of Britain in 1940.

recognized the quisling Government. The breach was later widened when quisling nominees were appointed to new congregational councils, with orders to prevent the use of the churches by the dismissed bishops or priests. State police had to be called in to force the old councils to give up registers, archives and keys.

Norwegian teachers were just as consistent in their refusal to implement the "New Order." They had gone on strike in November 1940, and many had been dismissed; there had been another strike in February 1941 to protest against quisling interference. In the following April there was a curt warning that any who then refused to join the Nazi-controlled organization would be banned from the schools. Nearly all stood out, and in reprisal some 500 were packed into a small coasting vessel and sent to the north of the country to work for the Germans. Conditions were appalling, and food was so scanty that some of the men who were employed to unload carcasses of meat at a port ate part of the flesh surreptitiously while carrying it.

Pro-Nazis controlled law and justice, for the 15 judges of the Supreme Court, who had resigned in November 1940, had been replaced by Quisling's nominees. In the spring of 1941 a "People's Court" had been established to try political prisoners. In February 1942 the Nasjonal Samling (Quisling's party) set up its court to try its own members. As to the medical profession, since its determined stand against the dismissal of Dr. Giessing, Director of the Dikemark Mental Hospital near Oslo, in April 1941, it had been more or less left alone.

Bogus 'People's Court'

Despite the appointment of pro-Nazis as chairman and secretary of the Trades Union Congress the members had remained steadfast. They sent an ultimatum to Terboven on June 30, 1941, demanding the reinstatement of dismissed officials and the opening of wages negotiations. In part they won, for their officials were released and the Nazi controller was withdrawn. When in the following September a decree was issued forbidding workers to buy milk at their work places a series of strikes broke out in Oslo. Terboven took this opportunity to crush the trade union movement: Viggo Hansteen, the legal adviser of the T.U.C., and Rolf Wickstroem were executed; about a thousand workers were given long terms of imprisonment. A decree by Terboven made strikes and lock-outs illegal and imposed the death sentence. Odd Fossum, head of the Nasjonal Samling's trade group organization, was appointed chairman of the T.U.C., and quisling commissars were put in charge of the unions.

The strength of the Nasjonal Samling at the end of 1941 was estimated at about 36,000 members, including children. Many youngsters had joined the Hird and travelled in gangs through towns and villages terrorizing people. Boys of 13 and 14 brandished their weapons and had been known to make peaceful citizens, at the revolver point, lie down in the gutter and drink dirty ditch-water, and recite the Lord's Prayer. In February 1942, as has been



BISHOP BERGGRAV OF OSLO

Leader of the council of seven Norwegian bishops set up in October 1940 to protect religious liberties. All seven resigned on February 24, 1942, after the dismissal of the Dean of Trondheim. In the following April Bishop Berggrav was arrested by the Nazis and imprisoned for a time.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

seen, Vidkun Quisling was elevated to the rank of Minister-President, and the members of his council then became ministers. Quisling moved to new offices in the Royal Palace at Oslo. He lived in a 46-roomed house outside Oslo, on the peninsula of Bygdoey. He expelled the owners of eight villas in this neighbourhood and roped off large areas to give him safe seclusion. He was watched over by a bodyguard of Norwegian S.S. troops in Hird uniform—dark blue, with the Norwegian version of the swastika in gold on the left arm.

Among Norwegians free to voice their opinions Quisling's authority was virtually non-existent, while the Germans merely used him as a tool. On his first appearance as Minister-President he said that Norway was free to, and would, conclude peace with Germany. At the end of 1942 this prediction had not been fulfilled. He had also said that the existing arrangements would lead to the establishment of a Riksting (National Assembly).

Norwegian seamen and shipowners were the target of much vindictiveness. In August 1941 the Shipowners' Association, till then supervised by the Gestapo, came under a German controller. Later on, in February of the next year, it was taken over by the Quisling Party; almost every Norwegian shipowner disavowed the Association. Captains and crews of merchant ships which had gone over to the Allies were offered bribes, via the radio, if they would sail their ships into Axis-controlled ports. In the spring a daily broadcast was begun to Norwegian seamen, giving them pathetic messages from their relatives in Norway and imploring them to return home "with their ships." These bogus messages were concocted from details given in forms on which relatives had been told to furnish particulars of sailors serving abroad.

In June 1942 Terboven ordered the shipowners to set up a committee for achieving closer cooperation with the Nazi-controlled Association, but this move failed. Finally, shipowners were made to pay income tax (150 per cent of average earnings, 1938–39) on a presumed profit earned by their ships sailing in Allied service. An example of the seamen's spirit is the exploit of a handful who seized the small passenger ship "Galtesund," plying between Bergen and Oslo, and sailed her to Britain in April 1942.

Seamen's Dashing Escape

Norwegians were much cheered by the raids carried out from Britain by Combined Operations Command, as it came to be called. Norwegians themselves had taken part in the raid on fish oil plants and shipping in the Lofotens on March 4, 1941 (see p. 1889), when a number of patriots had been transported to Britain. A detachment of Norwegian soldiers formed part of the mixed force which raided Spitsbergen on August 25, 1941. Coal and oil dumps were destroyed, the mines wrecked, and again many Norwegians among the population were brought off. Just after Christmas (December 27, 1941) the islands of Vaagso and Maaloy were attacked by Commandos, the objectives here being oil stores, wireless stations and industrial plant (see p. 1892). The stimulus and encouragement such raids afforded to the oppressed people can well be imagined.

A brilliant R.A.F. raid in daylight by four Mosquitoes interrupted Quisling's

speech on the afternoon of September 25, 1942, at the Gestapo H.Q., Oslo, to the Nasjonal Samling. A parade of the party had to be cancelled.

Ironically enough it was on a group of traitors of the 1914–18 period that the Nazis relied for the dragooning of Belgium after the surrender in May 1940. General von Bissing, head of the German administration in 1914–18, had sought to divide Belgians by cultivating the Flemish-speaking sections, whom the Germans, like the Nazis a generation later, claimed as cultural and racial kinsmen. He set up the "Conseil des Flandres," with a membership of a score of Flemish teachers and suchlike, headed by Dr. Borms, who after the war was condemned to death by a Belgian court but was later reprieved. There were others whom Von Bissing suborned. In 1940 the Nazis began where he had left off: the former traitors were now invested with powers over their compatriots. In September 1940 Borms was made president of a so-called reparations commission which gave money rewards to some of these people. Borms himself received an indemnity first of 100,000 francs and later of 1,000,000, with a monthly pension of 5,000 francs. He became the titular leader of the Flemish nationalists.

Belgian Traitors

While Walloon (French-speaking) Belgian prisoners of war were kept in prison camps the Flemish were sent back home. Extensive areas were proclaimed to be Flemish by the Nazis, and certain large cities also, including Brussels. Children were taken away from French classes and made to learn Flemish. Politically and culturally, every inducement was held out to the Flemish nationalists. A "Vlaamsch National Verband" was set up, into which other Flemish organizations were merged, including the Flemish section of the Rexists. Its head was Staf (Gustave) De Clercq, who has been described as a "public-house Fuehrer"; the nominal leader was Borms. De Clercq appointed Gouwleiders (district leaders), formed a Flemish brigade of storm troops, and instituted a Flemish Guard to maintain order in the newly created Flemish provinces. Members of the V.N.V. were given high posts under the German administration. The party had sent 16 deputies to the Belgian Parliament. De Clercq had been arrested as a doubtful character by the Belgian police on May 10, 1940, but later, of course, obtained his freedom.

Léon Degrelle, founder and leader of the Rexist (pro-Fascist) party, had also been arrested on the morning of the German invasion, together with his three fellow deputies. They were sent to France, but were freed after the Franco-German armistice in June.



SALUTE TO PATRIOTS

A national day of mourning for the Norwegian victims of the Gestapo was secretly fixed for February 27, 1942; black and red mourning crosses were painted overnight in many prominent places; here, at the entrance to the underground station in Oslo, are some on signposts and lamp standards. *Photo, Associated Press*

WHEN R.A.F. MOSQUITOES BOMBED GESTAPO H.Q. AT OSLO

The photograph below was taken from the first of the Mosquito reconnaissance bombers which, on September 25, 1942, bombed the Gestapo Headquarters (A) from about 100 feet; (B), the central cupola on which our pilots saw the Nazi flag; (C), the University building. *Photo, British Official, Crown Copyright*



Then there was Henri De Man, a former finance Minister, leader of the enemy-sponsored "Union of Manual and Intellectual Workers," which took the place of the former trades unions. To the Belgian workers he urged a policy of resignation and acceptance of the German conquest—views which he proclaimed in his journal, Le Travail. The Rexists republished their newspaper, Le Pays Réel, which the Belgian Government had suppressed; the Brussels pro-Fascists issued the Nouveau Journal, while the enemy's official organ was the Brusseler Zeitung, printed on plant commandeered from the Brussels daily, La Dernière Heure. The chief organ of the Flemish nationalists was the Volk en Stad.

Despite this superabundance of quisling newspapers—and there were other minor ones—the great bulk of the Belgian people went stolidly on their way, unaffected by the extravagant slogans and the more subtle propaganda. As a sample of Rexist publicity we may cite Degrelle's description of the Walloons as "French-speaking Teutons sprung from the same race as their brothers in the north and east." By an insidious perversion of what normally

was an inoffensive nationalist movement the Germans fomented grievances among the Flemish-speaking population and tried to infect even the Walloons with similar racial absurdities. In the main the Flemings refused to be a party to the Nazi intrigues. They preferred to bear the same hardships and privations as their Walloon compatriots. At the beginning of 1942 the strength of the Flemish nationalists was about 5,000 members and of the Rexists about 2,000. Numerically these parties were insignificant, and only the German backing gave them such power as they enjoyed. They quarrelled among themselves and were by no means unanimous or united in their subversive activities.

During 1942 German infiltration into industry, commerce and banking was extended. Apart from the requisitioning of such material as locomotives (1,800 out of 4,200), railway coaches (80,000 out of 120,000), lorries (practically all) and the enforced switch-over of engineering and other works to Nazi purposes, there was an attempt to acquire a long-term control of financial, insurance and commercial concerns.

Three-quarters of the coal output was sent to Germany, and during the severe winter of 1941-42 even the meagre ration of domestic coal—nominally about 1 cwt. per week per household—could not be obtained. The German-controlled trade union of Henri De Man won favour with neither employers nor workers. There was steadily increasing pressure on workmen and independent craftsmen to "volunteer" for work in Germany. If men refused, their unemployment relief ceased. Small manufacturers, hard hit by the slump, were given the option of going to Germany; in default their ration cards were cancelled. The Germans claimed that 300,000 men had volunteered, and it is probable that in fact two-thirds of this number had taken up work across the frontier under what amounted to duress.

Normal food rations at the beginning of 1942 amounted to (per person per week) 3½ oz. fats, 10½ oz. meat, 3 lb. bread, 2½ oz. coffee, ¾ lb. sugar, 6½ lb. potatoes, 7 pts. milk. Often the full amount of these foods was not obtainable, and potatoes, for instance, disappeared altogether for a time. In August 1942 the rations stood at: fats, 2¾ oz.; meat, 5¼ oz.; bread, 3 lb.; sugar, 2 lb.; potatoes, 4¾ lb.; milk was issued only to children and pregnant women.

Figures given by a Nazi-controlled newspaper in August 1942 indicated that between December 31, 1940, and the same date in 1941 the Belgian population had decreased by 37,282. Births for 1941 were approximately 34,000 fewer than for an average year between 1931 and 1939. This could not be explained away on the ground of a large number of men being prisoners in Germany, for the total number in enemy hands after the surrender was no more than 70,000, of whom many had been repatriated. Refugees, too, had come back from France, and the enemy, with an eye to their value in the labour market, had even provided transport for their return. The average loss of weight among Belgian working men was 18–26 lb., and among women 14–26 lb. Cases of tuberculosis increased a hundredfold; rickets, an almost unknown complaint in normal times, became common. An investigation of schoolchildren in Brussels showed that less than one-fifth attained a normal weight for their age group. The severe winter of 1941–42 claimed many victims among the very young and the aged; at Ghent the mortality was the highest ever recorded. Belgium is a densely populated country—700 inhabitants to the square mile—and normally imported more than half the food supply needed for her people; in consequence the German invasion and occupation left her in dire straits.



V FOR VICTORY ON AN OSLO HIGHWAY

Citizens of Oslo chalked Vs on walls and buildings, and under cover of night painted them on roadways, official buildings, and the offices of the Nazis, using pitch for light surfaces and whitewash for darker ones. When the Nazis obliterated the Vs, they were as promptly painted again. Here is an enormous example with King Haakon's cipher painted on a main roadway.

Photo, Royal Norwegian Government

Pro-British manifestations were observable in all sections of the people. The Flemish newspaper, De Nationaal-Socialist, reported the existence among the Antwerp police of a pro-Ally culture group. When R.A.F. machines were forced down and the crews taken prisoner there was a spontaneous exhibition of sympathy. On the graves of British pilots killed in crashes there were flowers brought by people who walked miles to pay this tribute. Russian prisoners of war sent to the coast for defence work were given cigarettes, food and clothing. When British bombers flew over at night en route to Germany, Belgians went to their windows or to the roof tops to watch, and there were cries of "They are here!" At Ostend, crowds gathered in the streets during an alert to watch the R.A.F. bombers. In Flanders there was a custom of keeping a vacant place at the table, reserved symbolically for "den Engelschman"—the Englishman who should come to liberate Belgium.

Homage to R.A.F. Pilots

Sabotage of German-controlled plant and equipment of all kinds was widespread, despite the extreme penalties meted out. Railway tracks were sabotaged all over the land; buildings were set on fire; petrol was stolen from enemy dumps; factories, garages and engineering works were blown up in a never-ceasing attack on all that might aid the enemy. By the end of 1942 the known executions of patriots numbered 3,000—ten times as many as during the four years of German occupation, 1914–18. The flame of patriotic ardour

burned brightly in the men and women of this generation as in the last.

In Belgium, as in Norway, the clergy led the people in resistance. In 1914-18 the Archbishop of Malines had been Cardinal Mercier (a Walloon), who had defied General von Bissing. This time it was a Fleming, Cardinal van Roey, who encouraged his flock to abstain from anything approaching collaboration with the enemy.

Cardinal Van Roey

In January 1942 the Cardinal in a sermon declared: "The Church . . . cannot tolerate conditions that would stifle her, such as those existing in Germany. It is illegal for Catholics to collaborate with an oppressive regime. On the contrary, they must resist it." He refused to recognize a quisling burgomaster of Malines appointed in January. Six months later, on National Independence Day, he paid an official call in the traditional way upon the Chevalier Dessain, the real burgomaster whom the enemy had dismissed. The clergy consistently refused to officiate at services for Belgian Rexist and Flemish nationalist soldiers killed on the Russian front, actions in which they were backed up by the Cardinal and the bishops. In an address to a congress of Belgian young people at Wavre on August 11, 1941, Van Roey again emphasized that it was wrong to collaborate in the establishment of a tyrannical regime.

Of clandestine newspapers there were at least 60—including of course the revived La Libre Belgique, which had published its first number of the 1940 edition on August 15 of that year and ran soon to a circulation of 40,000—passed from hand to hand. In July 1941 sixteen inhabitants of Liége were sentenced by the German military court for having edited, written and circulated illegal pamphlets and newspapers. The penalties ranged in this case—a typical one—from eight months' solitary confinement to 25 years. The latter sentence was pronounced upon Jean Jubonnet, a lawyer.

Heroic Burgomaster Adolphe Max, of Brussels, whose stalwart opposition to the German administration in 1914-18 made him the incarnation of resistance, had a worthy successor in Dr. F. J. van de Meulebroeck. At the end of June 1941, when he was superseded by a Nazi nominee, Dr. Meulebroeck issued a proclamation stating that if he had complied with certain German demands he would have spurned honour and duty, and have disobeyed one of the fundamental laws of his country. "I am, I remain, and will remain the one and only lawful burgomaster of Brussels. . . . I am therefore not saying goodbye, but 'au revoir.' In leaving you temporarily I ask you to endure your hardships and sufferings . . . calmly, courageously and with confidence." These were the inspiring phrases of his farewell. The Burgomaster was arrested the same day, together with the Chief of the Brussels Police and the owner of the Guyot Press which had printed the proclamation. The press was closed, and a fine of 5,000,000 francs was imposed on the inhabitants of Brussels. A month earlier the Alderman of Verviers had taken similar action against a Rexist burgomaster.



UNION JACK OVER BELGIAN TOWN

Early in 1942 unknown Belgian patriots in a town near Brussels climbed an electric pylon one night to affix a Union Jack—an act typical of many which showed where the people's sympathies and hopes were placed. Next morning the Nazis ordered firemen to take down the flag: two are seen during this operation.

Photo, "Daily Telegraph"



DR. BORMS—TWICE A TRAITOR

Borms, seen at the microphone addressing Flemish Volunteers before they left for the front in August 1941 to fight alongside the Germans in Russia, had been a traitor who aided the enemy in the war of 1914-18. Now he was rewarded by the Nazis and given a large subsidy in cash, becoming the leader of the Flemish Nationalists

Photo, Associated Press

King Leopold maintained consistently the attitude he had adopted when he became a prisoner at his castle of Laeken on May 28, 1940. His position had been made clear by Cardinal van Roey in a pastoral letter shortly after. The King had signed neither pact nor treaty, even of a military nature, with the Germans; he had in no way infringed the constitution of the Belgian people. Leopold considered himself a prisoner of war; he refused to parley with the enemy and was just as steadfast in his refusal to be moved by appeals made to him by quislings of either







GIFTS TO THE DUTCH FROM THEIR QUEEN
To mark the sixty-second birthday of Queen Wilhelmina on August 31, 1942, thousands of packets of cigarettes were scattered over the Netherlands by the Royal Air Force. The packets bore the legends (left) 'Be Courageous' and 'The Netherlands Shall Arise' (centre). Right, the Royal cipher and Vs for Victory on packets dropped for the 1941 birthday of the Queen.
Photos, G.P.U.; "News Chronicle"

Flemish nationalist or Rexist brands. A few days before November 15, 1941 (the King's name day), the Germans forbade any public demonstration; "since the King regards himself as a prisoner of war," said the official communiqué, "he will certainly not wish for any political demonstration in his honour."

On September 11, 1941, the King married Mademoiselle Marie Lilian Baels, daughter of a former Belgian Minister of Agriculture. He stated that his wife renounced the title and rank of Queen, and made it a condition of the marriage that any children of the union would have no claim to the throne. She would be known as Princess de Réthy. On July 18, 1942, a son was born and was named Prince Alexander.

Despite superficial resemblances in the fate of Holland and Belgium there were wide differences. Belgium had a population of over 8,000,000, mainly engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, while the Netherlands, with a million more inhabitants, was mainly agricultural. Both were densely populated, the average per square mile in both countries being about 700 persons. The Netherlands was happy in the circumstance that its Royal House was free in Britain or other Allied lands, there to fan the flame of patriotic resistance and to inspire the war effort in the Dutch Empire. The timely broadcasts of Queen Wilhelmina to her oppressed people had an immeasurable effect in mitigating spiritual and physical hardships and strengthening their will to resist the Nazis. Even after the catastrophe in the Far East, when the Netherlands East Indies were overrun by the Japanese, they did not lose heart.

Holland Under Nazi Rule

All Dutch parties except the National-Socialists were dissolved in July 1941. The Fifth Column menace in Holland had been grave on account of the many Germans who had settled in the country and had become, except for their political activities, completely naturalized to all appearances. Some had clung to their German allegiance, but even these, until the Germans under Hitler began to arouse that fevered nationalism which distorted all normal values, had given no cause for alarm to the Dutch administration. They began to collect a following of Dutch people, some of whom became more Nazi than the Germans. But when, in 1942, General Christiansen, the German Military Governor, tried to recruit the Dutch Nazis for service against Russia he found few willing to go. A totalitarian regime was imposed on the country, and in August 1941 all central, provincial and local governing bodies were dissolved. There was the same struggle of the Church leaders as in Belgium and Norway. Both Roman Catholic and Protestant clergy warned their congregations not to be misled by the Nazi "crusade" against Bolshevism, which was set in motion in all the occupied countries. Schools were closed, or staffed with men willing to comply with the German idea of education.

The former Premier, Dr. Colijn, was arrested in July, with members of his party. After a broadcast by Queen Wilhelmina on her birthday (August 31) the Reichskommissar, Seyss-Inquart, banned the use of Royal names or emblems for brands and labels of goods, or by professional organizations. All Crown properties were at the same time seized by the Nazis. Foreshadowing action which followed, Seyss-Inquart in November told the Dutch that an independent Netherlands was not to figure in the Nazi "New Order." This declaration at a single stroke demolished the wishful plans of the Dutch Nazis who, under Anton Mussert, had anticipated their reward in the shape of place and privilege.

On the morrow of the Japanese attack on British and American outposts in the Far East Queen Wilhelmina issued a proclamation which was broadcast by the Premier, Dr. Gerbrandy, for her over Radio Orange, from which the following passages are quoted:

> "Now that the friendly American and British peoples are being attacked, the Kingdom of the Netherlands puts all its military power and all its resources at the disposal of the common war effort. . . . I count on the navy, the army and the air force, on all civil servants, and on all the civil services whose war duty now begins. I and all my subjects count on all the courage, the determination and the perseverance of all in the Indies."

How nobly the Netherlands East Indies answered the call is told in Chapters 207 and 208.

Dutch Patriot Martyrs

The familar pattern of Nazi repression already described in earlier sections of this Chapter was manifest in Holland—and the same types of opposition and underground resistance. During January 1942 four Dutchmen were shot as members of a secret organization; four more were shot, in Northern France, for intelligence work against the invaders; five farmers were executed for aiding British airmen forced down in Holland; 20 men were sentenced to imprisonment for distributing anti-German leaflets. So the catalogue could be extended for later months. In February 500 were sent to a concentration camp near Amersfoort on the charge of placing bombs in the houses of quislings.

In April the number of Dutchmen sent to labour in Germany had grown to 150,000. Next month more labour decrees were issued. In August all women between 18 and 40 were ordered to register for recruitment for Nazi women's labour battalions. Seyss-Inquart issued a decree that Dutchmen would be drafted to guard factories,

railways, etc. The penalty for negligence resulting in damage was death. As the result of the intensified drive for labour the number of Dutchmen sent to Germany had doubled by September, and was then over 300,000. Anti-Jewish laws were made more rigorous. In October 1941 nearly 800 Jews were sent to the sulphur mines in Austria, where many died. In the following April the Dutch Government in London stated that out of 1,200 sent to the concentration camp at Mauthausen about 700 had perished. In May 1942 all Jewish property was registered as the first step towards seizure. Next month the first of the big round-ups took place, and as a result 6,000 Jews were assembled at Amsterdam for transportation to Russia and Poland.

It was reported in June that the Germans had a long-term plan to colonize parts of conquered Poland and Russia with Dutch farmers compulsorily removed from Holland. The cost of this scheme was to be met from funds confiscated from the East Indies concerns whose capital was in Dutch banks. In October the prices of all East Indies shares and international stocks were pegged.

Farmers Sent to Poland

Broadcasting from England in October 1942, Queen Wilhelmina sternly warned all Netherlanders who collaborated with the Germans that they would have to accept the consequences, and that these would be serious indeed. But, judging by the counter-measures taken by the Nazis against Dutch patriots, those to whom the Queen's warning was addressed formed a small minority. In May 1942 the German-controlled press complained about rampant sabotage in every industry and trade; in October there were reports of stubborn resistance and increasing sabotage. Punishments became more drastic and the taking of hostages began. Two thousand officers of the Dutch Army, with 460 prominent citizens, were sent to a concentration camp in May. Soon after, another group of prominent Dutchmen was arrested: among them were former Ministers and Members of Parliament. In July 1,000 hostages were taken; next month five were shot in reprisal for the blowing up of a train, and 200 more were arrested. The first woman to be shot for sabotage had been executed in July. According to a report which came from Moscow, during July and August Dutch patriots destroyed 40 goods trains, set fire to five German aircraft, and blew up a torpedo store in Haarlem.



BELGIAN HOMAGE TO BRITISH AIRMEN AT BRAINE-LE-COMTE

In October 1942 a British bomber hit by German gunfire crashed in Belgium and its crew were killed. Five thousand Belgians gathered to pay homage to seven of the bomber crew whose remains were found and buried at Braine-le-Comte cemetery. Note the flowers which have been placed at the graveside and on the coffins.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

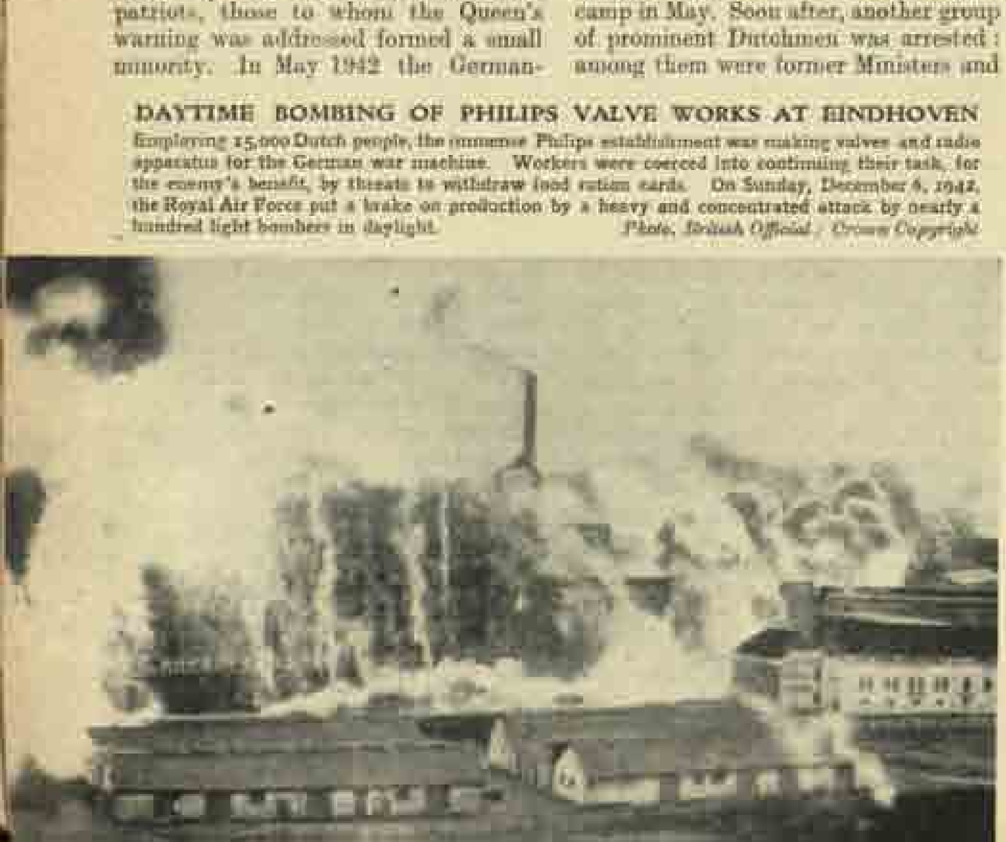
Much against their will many Dutch workers had to take part in the production of material for the Nazis, but the strict control of rationing and the use of this system to coerce people into obedience left almost no alternative but starvation. The odious manoeuvre was the same as that described in the Belgian section. But the R.A.F. did its best to apply a brake to such forced production. At Eindhoven was the great radio works of the Philips concern, where enormous quantities of valves and similar apparatus were turned out. It was heavily bombed in daylight by the R.A.F. on December 6, 1942.

In October the Nazis began to evacuate people from the Netherlands coastal area, and by the end of the year this operation was almost complete. Preparations were made to meet an Allied landing. An even sterner control was imposed on the long-suffering people of Holland, but the reason for this measure was clearly seen, and in itself was heartening.

DAYTIME BOMBING OF PHILIPS VALVE WORKS AT EINDHOVEN

Employing 15,000 Dutch people, the immense Philips establishment was making valves and radio apparatus for the German war machine. Workers were coerced into continuing their task, for the enemy's benefit, by threats to withdraw food ration cards. On Sunday, December 6, 1942, the Royal Air Force put a brake on production by a heavy and concentrated attack by nearly a hundred light bombers in daylight.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



VICHY FRANCE AND THE OCCUPIED REGION, JANUARY—JUNE, 1942

This period saw the opening of the Riom trial of 'war-guilt' prisoners and its hasty suspension under Hitler's orders in the middle of April; other events, notable in different connexions, were the escape of General Giraud from Koenigstein and the return of Laval to power as Chief of Government, his main mission being to procure French labour for the Reich. Six character sketches of Vichy personalities are printed in page 2187

On January 1, 1942, Marshal Pétain broadcast to the French nation. He once again spoke of the dangers to which France and her Empire were exposed, and suggested that a sincere "rapprochement" between Germany and France could be brought about only by a modification of the statute imposed on France by Germany. "Our dignity," he said, "will be restored, our economy relieved."

He referred also to the heavy costs of occupation, the crushing nature of which was borne out by the Minister of Finance's budget for 1942 which, presented on the same day, he estimated would be 120-125,000,000,000 francs. This figure, though comparable to that of 1941 (130,000,000,000 fr.), was in effect immeasurably greater, since, as the Minister (M. Bouthillier) declared, the burden of the tribute payable to Germany became heavier in the same measure as France's economy grew feebler and she accumulated a debt which grew in proportion to her continued impoverishment.

Approximately 50 per cent of France's budget being needed to pay the costs of occupation, no inference is possible other than that the Reich was ruthlessly determined to use the weapon of economic force to bring France into line, a point emphasized by Hitler's retention of over 1,250,000 prisoners-of-war and exploitation of French agriculture. Further proof of Germany's determination to enforce this policy was provided by the threat, contained in a note presented to Vichy towards the end of March 1942, to occupy all French territory unless her demands for huge quantities of food, wine, and locomotives were met.

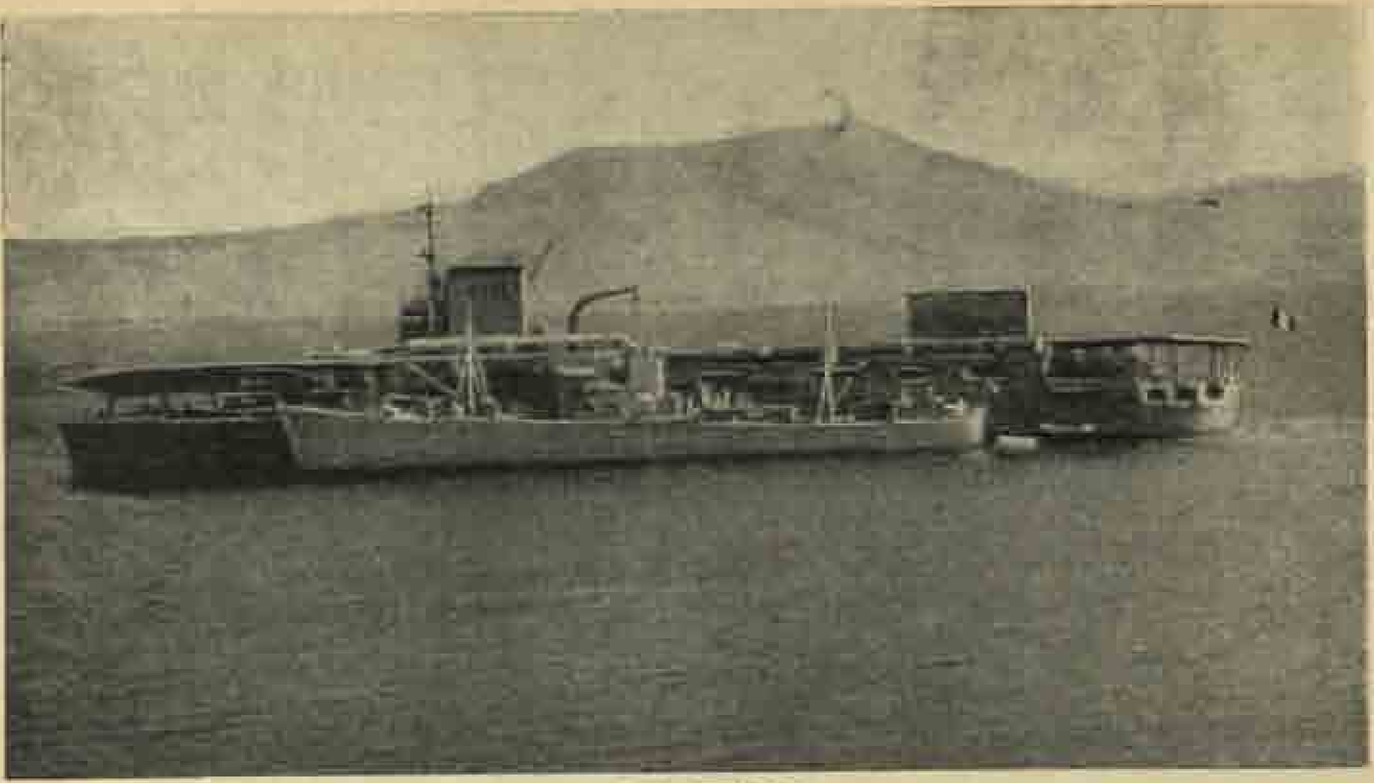
Moreover, as was revealed by the British Minister of Economic Warfare, Mr. Hugh Dalton, on February 9, German pressure was enforcing the systematic delivery of large and valuable military supplies to their troops in Libya by the French authorities in North Africa. Despite the unsatisfactory nature of Vichy's replies to representations by the United States, during which negotiations all U.S. ship-

SITTING OF THE RIOM SUPREME COURT OF JUSTICE

This Court was set up to try the 'war-guilt' prisoners, including Daladier, Blum, Gamelin, Guy La Chambre, Jacomet and Pierre Cot. It proved to be a travesty of justice and, even so, concerned itself mainly with the causes of the French defeat. Hitler forced its adjournment on April 2, 1942, after six weeks. Nearly 14 months later (June 15, 1943) a decree of Vichy in the Official Gazette closed the Riom court. On the left is the Public Prosecutor, Cassagneau; at the back are the six judges and their three deputies.

Photo, Sport & General





FRENCH AIRCRAFT CARRIER 'BEARN' AT MARTINQUE

Of 22,146 tons displacement, the 'Bearn' was one of three warships (the others were light cruisers) which the United States asked the Governor, Admiral Georges Robert, to immobilize in May 1942; another request was that merchant ships at Martinique should be put at American disposal. Robert agreed on May 14 to immobilize the warships. Below, Admiral Leahy, American Ambassador to Vichy (right), bids farewell to Marshal Pétain on his recall to Washington for consultation (April 17, 1942). *Photos, "Daily Express"; Associated Press*



ments to North Africa were suspended, America continued to seek a satisfactory settlement of this problem. The return of the newly repaired battleship "Dunkerque" from Oran to Toulon on February 21, 1942 (increasing as it did Allied anxiety regarding the future of the still formidable French fleet), coupled with the United States' recognition of Oceania (March 2) and Free French Africa (April 4), aggravated still further the strained relations between the two nations.

A few days after Pétain's New Year broadcast Marcel Déat, who had become the head of the "Rassemblement National Populaire" the previous October, attacked the Marshal's policy of "attentisme" in a Paris radio talk, saying that France risked losing her role in Europe, North Africa and her Empire if she continued to evade thorough-going collaboration. "All false collaborationists," he said, "and the men who want to 'wait-and-see' are deserters."

Occupation of St. Pierre and Miquelon

On January 9 Pétain received General Dentz (former C.-in-C. of the Vichy forces in Syria) and three days later, significantly, Vichy issued a statement demanding the return of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which had been occupied by the Free French on December 24, 1941.

The intrigues and counter-intrigues resorted to by those who had used France's downfall as an excuse to indulge in power politics continued to be a source of perpetual worry to Hitler, who sought, above all, for real collaboration, the lack of which De Brinon, the Vichy Ambassador to Paris, complained bitterly about in an interview given to Paris journalists on January 30.

On February 19, 1942, the trial of the "war-guilt" prisoners was opened at Riom, the accused being: M. Edouard Daladier (Premier and Minister of War and National Defence in September 1939), M. Léon Blum (Premier in the "Front Populaire" government of 1936), Gen. Gamelin (Allied Generalissimo,





IN UNOCCUPIED FRANCE

Until November 11, 1942, when Germany occupied all France, there had been the zone nominally under Vichy control. Here are glimpses of life there. (1) The "Youth Army" known as "Les Compagnons de France" on parade in Marseilles; (2) a stocking line waiting to enter a Marseilles department store during a rationing period. From Marseilles also comes (3), where a Frenchman examines posters which read: "For the People of France, For the Bread of Frenchmen"; "For the People against the Starvation-mongers." Petrol shortage is reflected in (4), at Nice, which shows a line of "gazogene" taxis that run on compressed gas in cylinders.

Photos, Pictorial Press





September 1939 - June 1940), M. Guy La Chambre (former Air Minister), M. Robert Jacomet (Controller-General of Armaments), and M. Pierre Cot (Air Minister under M. Blum). Pierre Cot was tried "in absentia" as he was then in America. The indictments were: (i) "betrayal of duties"; (ii) "attempts against the security of the State," and stated, "inter alia," that the French forces were not ready when the war began, that training was inadequate, arms insufficient, air support negligible, and that production had slackened as a result of the labour legislation of MM. Blum and Daladier.

The trial, arranged to determine the question of the responsibility for the war, proved itself a very mockery of traditional French justice. Far from dealing with the "political causes of the war," the trial concerned itself only with the causes of the French military defeat—these would seem to be summed up thus: (i) The move into Belgium; (ii) The weakness of the "hinge" on the Meuse; (iii) The delay in evacuating the Maginot Line; and (iv) The abandonment of the Paris region. The trial thus defeated its purpose while allowing widespread publication of facts prejudicial to Vichy and Germany and their policy of collaboration. This unexpected outcome, which angered Hitler to the point of giving public expression to his dissatisfaction in his Reichstag speech of March 15, forced his hand and compelled him not only to apply pressure for the postponement of the trial, but also to bring about a new French government, one completely subservient to Berlin. The first was achieved with the indefinite adjournment of the court on April 2, later suspended by a decree-law promulgated on April 14.

A factor strongly supporting Berlin's intrigues was Pétain's traditional hatred of Britain, one of many frequent expressions of which took place as a result of the heavy British air attack on the Renault works at Billancourt in the environs of Paris on March 3, 1942 (see illus., p. 2121). This legitimate blow at Axis war-production was bitterly attacked by Pétain in a message read at the funeral of the victims on March 7, a vituperation ably backed up by both Vichy and German-controlled radio and press.

It was not, therefore, surprising that the hotchpotch of Vichy political intrigues should gradually begin to assume definite shape, Pétain, Laval, Darlan and Abetz having frequent conversations.

April Intrigues at Vichy

On April 4 Admiral Darlan, addressing the "Conseil National," said that 1942 would be a decisive year for France, and referred to the danger of Bolshevism—"the political change of position of our former allies, who are now the allies of Bolshevism, the most deadly foe of the French people." This warning was followed nine days later by another one, issued this time by Marcel Déat, who had escaped a second attempt on his life when a bomb was thrown at him on March 26 at Tours. An ardent supporter of collaboration with Germany, Déat in a speech in Paris said that the fate of France would be decided in a few hours. France, he said, could either come out openly for collaboration in the new Europe, or Germany would take measures to enforce her will on France. "We can," he said, "participate in a European victory or a British defeat. . . ."

The following day (April 14), the recent prolonged and heavy attacks on the Vichy "attentistes" by the German-controlled press and radio, demanding that Vichy should define its attitude "once for all," which had hastened the climax of Laval's intrigues with Pétain and Abetz, bore fruit with Laval's seizure of power.

Announcing this, both Berlin and Vichy stated that Laval would return to office as "Chief of the Government with special powers," that the Cabinet would be reconstructed on a new basis



FIRST REPATRIATED FRENCH WAR PRISONERS

On June 22, 1942, Laval appealed to French workers to go to Germany in exchange for soldiers whom the Germans undertook to release. Much pressure was brought to bear on the workers, especially on those who had been evacuated from the coastal strip between Boulogne and Dieppe. Above, in Compiègne station, returned soldiers in the first trainload talk with a batch of workmen who are going to the Reich under the exchange scheme.

Photo: "New York Times" Photos

by Marshal Pétain, and that Admiral Darlan, dropping the present office of Vice-Premier, would leave the Cabinet and remain the head of the French Armed Forces, nominally responsible only to Pétain.

Laval, proclaiming his policy, declared that he would aim at maintaining friendly relations both with Germany and the U.S.A., and these would be based on the solution of the following problems: Maintenance of the integrity of the French Empire; France's attitude in the war between Germany and Britain; and the Alsace-Lorraine question, which only "friendly understanding" with Germany would solve.

Laval's Return to Power

On April 17 Pétain received the formal resignation of the former Cabinet, and the next day announced the new Cabinet, of which the Ministers were as follows:

Chief of Government, Foreign Affairs, Information and Interior: *M. Pierre Laval.* Minister Without Portfolio: *M. Lucien Romier.* Minister of Justice: *Prof. Joseph Barthélemy.* Minister of Finance: *M. Pierre Cathala.* Minister of Agriculture and Food Supplies: *M. Jacques Leroy-Ladurie.* Minister of Education: *M. Abel Bonnard.*

The following day Pétain sought to justify the newly constituted Cabinet in a broadcast in which he said that at a moment as decisive as June 1940 he found himself associated once more with Laval, to continue the task of national recovery.

Under Pétain's presidency the first meeting of the new Cabinet was held in Vichy on April 20, Darlan also being present. Later the same day Laval, in a broadcast to the nation, said that he always returned to power when France was in peril, and blamed the French defeat on former governments. "For a long time," he said, "I have always affirmed that a 'rapprochement' between France and Germany was the indispensable condition of European peace. . . . At Montoire a new political principle was admitted, one in which neither the honour nor the vital interests of France were sacrificed. . . . The gigantic struggle Germany is waging against Bolshevism has not only extended the scope of the war but revealed its real meaning. Do you imagine that the Soviets, if victorious, would stop at our frontiers?" Accusing Britain of numerous military crimes, Laval ended by appealing for unity and cooperation in building the new France.

This strong propaganda speech was followed by an Order of the Day, issued by Admiral Darlan to the Vichy forces, saying "Rely on me, as I rely on you, to follow the path of honour and defend the Empire under the high authority of the Marshal."



IN THE FRENCH CONCENTRATION CAMP AT GURS

More than 200,000 men and women were imprisoned in concentration camps in Unoccupied France—Jews, so-called Communists, and refugees from other European lands. In most cases their only offence was that they were opposed to Nazism or Fascism and had not concealed their views. Bored, dejected, unhappy, they whiled away the long days of captivity.

Photo, Pictorial Press

These political developments, the cause of an immediate increase in dissension, anti-Vichy and anti-German demonstrations, and sabotage in both zones, were received with anxiety in the Allied countries, and brought about a further split among Vichy officials abroad, some of whom joined the Free French.

An event of great significance to the Allied cause was the arrival in Unoccupied France on May 2, 1942, of General Henri Giraud, to attend the Franco-German talks at Moulins. Giraud, who had been a prisoner of war since May 20, 1940, had escaped from Königstein fortress in Saxony a week before (see illus. p. 2168). He was allowed full freedom of movement, the reason apparently being Vichy's hope of gaining his adherence to and active participation in their policy of collaboration with Germany.

Further talks took place in Moulins on May 11, in which Laval and Goering met to discuss current problems, among them that of speeding up the dispatch of French labour to Germany, in regard to which Laval had already commenced an intense propaganda drive for recruits, and for which numerous German recruiting bureaux had been set up in France. A gesture on Pétain's part, not without significance, was the release the previous day of 500 "political prisoners."

Then came the British occupation of Diego Suarez, the naval base in Madagascar, on May 7, as a precaution against Japanese aggression. This move was strongly condemned by Pétain in a message to the Governor-General, M. Annet, on May 5, while Laval denied that Japan had attempted to gain control of the island. Similarly, Laval condemned the United States' precautionary action in Martinique—expressed in her note of May 10, in which she required "the immobilization of French warships and aircraft under American supervision*; American control of wireless and telegraphic communications and mail censorship; American control of commercial traffic and of persons travelling to and from the Antilles; French military and naval forces to be used for police duties; merchant ships at present immobilized to be put at American disposal; and gold and Government funds to be frozen for the future use of the French nation." In a note Laval acceded to some of these demands and expressed

Occupation of Madagascar

*French warships at Martinique included the aircraft carrier "Béarn" (22,146 tons) and the cruisers "Emile Bertin" (5,886 tons) and "Jeanne d'Arc" (6,496 tons).

France's willingness to negotiate through the Governor of the island, Admiral Georges Robert, regarding the other matters.

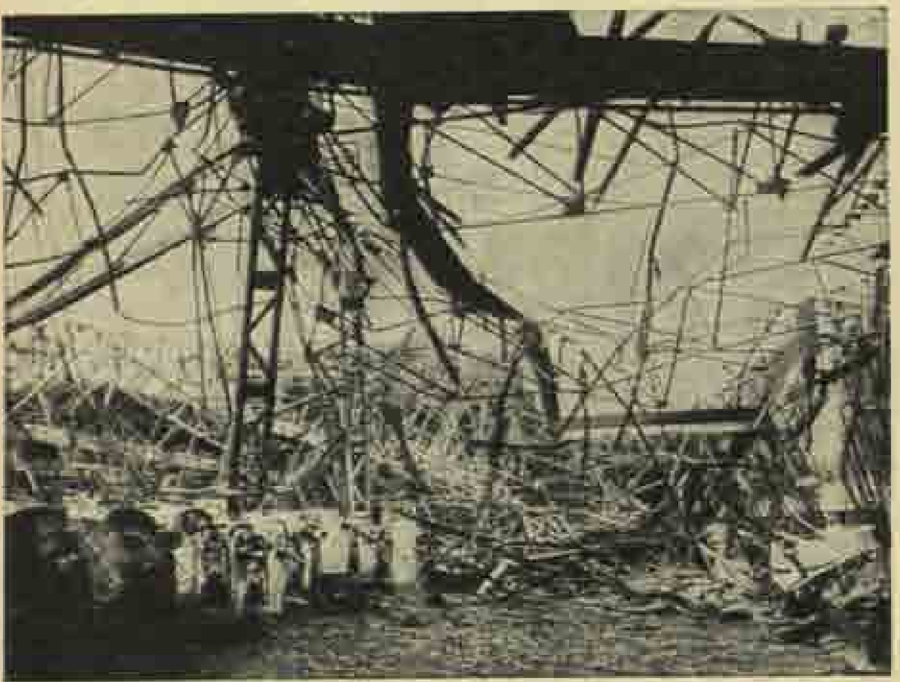
That Pétain was little more than a figurehead in the new Cabinet—an opinion widely held abroad—received some confirmation on June 6, when Laval replaced M. François Valentin, Director-General of the Legion (which had in effect become little more than an auxiliary police instrument of the Vichy Government), by M. Raymond Lachal, one of his own most ardent supporters. Pétain himself, speaking at a Legion dinner a few days later, gave further substance to this belief when he said: "Laval and I are now marching hand in hand. . . . There are no more clouds between us. . . ."

Nevertheless, while Pétain was on the surface openly reconciled with Laval, the policy of Doriot's National People's (Fascist) Party was bringing him into open conflict with Laval, who stated on June 12 that he had forbidden Doriot to organize political rallies in Unoccupied France and to arm the special police of his National Party. "Doriot," he said, "wants to take the power for himself, but the power is the Government, and I am the Government."

Further testimony of Laval's keen desire to obtain popular support for his anti-Bolshevist programme was forthcoming in a speech he made to representatives of workers at Vichy on June 14. Declaring that in the interests of France he ardently desired and confidently expected a German victory, because France would become Communist otherwise, he reminded his audience that every French worker going to Germany released a young German worker to fight against Communism on the eastern front.

On the second anniversary (June 17) of the Armistice Pétain broadcast a message to his country in which he admitted the failure of his government to overcome hunger, want, discontent, and even anger among the people. Despite this failure, he asked whether a return of past methods could have saved them. "In this succession of hopes, setbacks, uncertainties, sacrifices and disappointments which have marked the first two years of the Armistice," he said, "was it not in fact France—wounded France, blinded France—which was seeking herself? She will find herself, I am sure."

Five days later Laval, in a broadcast from Vichy, again appealed to French workers to go to Germany in large numbers and so secure the liberation of a large number of agriculturists. He referred again to the bogy of Bolshevism, saying that two alternatives faced France, either to integrate themselves, with their honour and interests respected, in a new and peaceful Europe, or to resign themselves to the downfall of their civilization. "I have been in power for two months," he said; "events have hardly been favourable to me. The Government finds itself confronted with new difficulties—British aggression in Madagascar and American intervention in the Antilles." Referring to Giraud's sensational escape from Germany, France's lack of raw materials, her great unemployment, he indicated that the only hope for the future of the country lay in sending French workers to the Reich.



RENAULT LORRIES DENIED TO THE GERMAN WAR MACHINE

The great Renault factories at Billancourt, near Paris, were bombed by the R.A.F. on the night of March 3, 1942, and immense damage was done to the shops where tanks, lorries and staff cars were being produced for the Nazis. A general view is given in p. 2121 (where in error it is stated that the attack was made in daylight). Above, wrecked workshops where lorries were made on the Ile Seguin.

Photo, Free French Photographic Section

During this decisive period of France's history dissension, unrest and sabotage were rife everywhere, particularly after Laval's return to power. This outward and active expression of French hatred for the conquerors and the Vichy regime was countered here, as elsewhere, by pitiless measures of repression, by shootings and other reprisals, and by imposing new and petty laws and curfews designed to curtail even further the limited freedom of the masses. Executions were so numerous that only one or two instances can be mentioned here. On February 2, as a result of dynamite attacks on German army installations and the wounding of German soldiers in January, General Otto von Schamburg, the Military Governor of Paris, announced that 100 French youths—"Jews and Communists"—would be deported to Eastern Europe and that six others had already been shot. This was followed two days later by a decree by General von Stulpnagel imposing sentences of forced labour, imprisonment, fine, and even death for people refusing to deliver any goods for requisitioning which might be demanded.

Active 'Underground' Resistance

A Free French report dated April 21, 1942, stated that it was believed 500 Frenchmen had been executed by Germany for taking part in a rising following the British Commando raid at St. Nazaire on March 28.

Among bomb "outrages," which were numerous, most significant were those aimed at five local headquarters of Déat's Rassemblement National Populaire in Paris in early February, and similar attacks on the offices of Doriot's National People's Party at Cannes, Niort, Nantes, and Bourges in late June. Anti-Nazi and Anti-Vichy demonstrations were of frequent occurrence, as were also food riots, street battles and, especially, attacks on German soldiers. An indication is given by a statement published in Vichy that during 1941 the French police had made 5,390 arrests and 12,773 searches, and that between July 1, 1941, and February 18, 1942, some 230 acts of sabotage had been detected.

PERSONALITIES OF CONQUERED FRANCE

As an aid to the understanding of the conflicting and tortuous policy of the Vichy Government (see Chapter 219) and the factors which conduced to the collapse in June 1940, the following character sketches are presented.

Jean François DARLAN

Born in 1881; just before the First Great War broke out he was the youngest senior officer in the French Navy. He took an active part in the war and served in various seagoing posts thereafter until 1930, when he was appointed to a position in the Admiralty and began to seek political advancement. On September 3, 1939, he became Commander of the French Fleet. After the French surrender he displayed a strong anti-British bias—though this might be explained by anxiety to make the best of the catastrophe for his own country's sake. In appraising his character it is necessary to bear in mind the peculiarities of French politics and the many changes in administration. He was known in 1936 as the "Admiral of the Popular Front," and it was Blum who made him Naval Chief of Staff.



He represented the Admiralty in Pétain's "surrender" Ministry of June 1940; the next February he was advanced to Vice-Premier when Laval fell out of favour, but when Laval returned to power in April 1942 was displaced from political affairs—in compensation he received the appointment of C.-in-C. French Forces. In May he ordered Madagascar to resist the Allied invasion. It happened that Darlan was in North Africa when the forces of the United Nations landed (November 1942). Pétain ordered him to resist, but he soon came to terms with the Allied commander and later offered his collaboration. He was appointed High Commissioner, and the criticism which this arrangement provoked was dissipated only by the death of Darlan on Christmas Day, 1942, at the hands of an assassin. He was responsible for organizing the Vichy police system on Nazi lines, and supported Laval in the spurious exchange scheme by which French prisoners of war were to be repatriated in proportion to workers sent to the Reich.

Marcel DÉAT

Returned from the First Great War as a captain, with pronounced pacifist views. He entered the Ecole Normale Supérieure and espoused philosophy, with a bias towards German culture. Later he took up politics and, aided by Léon Blum, became a Socialist Deputy. In 1933, with others, he founded the Neo-Socialist Party. This concern favoured the reorganization of France on corporative and Fascist lines; its motto was Order, Authority, Nation. He was Minister for Air in 1936 when Hitler reoccupied the Rhineland, and rejected any military steps which might have led to war. His blatant pacifism became notorious during the Munich crisis and was expressed in 1939 in his articles written under the slogan "We don't want to die for Danzig!"



His own party, the Rassemblement National Populaire, supported Laval. In his newspaper "L'Œuvre" he advocated the Parti Unique, embracing all other parties, of which he hoped to become leader, this being the line of cleavage with the organization sponsored by Jacques Doriot, who stood out against absorption in a single national party.

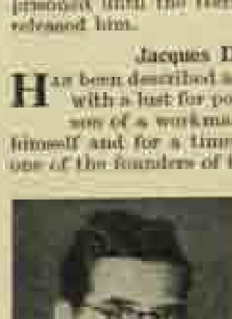
Count Fernand de BRINON

Appointed Pétain's representative in Paris on November 4, 1940. An old friend of Otto Abetz, he had been playing the German game since 1930. An interview with Hitler in 1933 brought him to the public eye, and soon after this he was advocating a pact between Britain, France, Germany and Italy—to give the Nazis a free hand in the East. He founded the Comité France-Allemagne, and frequently travelled to Germany, where he became a crony of Ribbentrop and was often received by Hitler, Goering and Hess. In 1938 his friend Laval used De Brinon as an unofficial envoy to Berlin, when in turn he arranged the visit to Paris of Ribbentrop. Upon the outbreak of war he was arrested by the French authorities and remained imprisoned until the German entry into Paris released him.



Jacques DORIOT

Has been described as a typical mercenary, with a lust for power at any price. The son of a workman, he was a mechanic himself and for a time was a Communist—one of the founders of the French party. He became a Deputy, and was Mayor of St. Denis, in the Paris "Red belt," until involvement in the Stavisky affair brought about his resignation. With a quick change he switched to the Right in 1934, founding the Parti Populaire Française (originally recruited among workmen) and advocating anti-Communist views (1936). After the Armistice Doriot's party amalgamated with the Fascist Cagoulards and absorbed the "Groupes d'Action." Later it had a section, known as the "Service d'Ordre," on the lines of the Nazi Gestapo.



In May 1941 Doriot founded the French Anti-Bolshevik Legion. He claimed to be a "man of the Marshal," often at odds with Laval and Déat and personally loyal to Pétain. As strong a collaborationist as the others, he was said to favour the establishment of a complete Nazi state in France.

General Marie Gustave GAMELIN

Born in 1872; to Frenchmen he was architect of the victory of the Marne in September 1914, under the direction of Marshal Joffre. In 1935 he became Chief of the French Army, replacing Weygand, who, by the turn of the wheel, was to succeed him when in May 1940 the armies were staggering under the German invasion. Gamelin was reputed to be a theorist rather than a leader. He favoured a defensive war. He was untinged by Fascism and never fought against democracy, and of his burning patriotism there was never any doubt. But it was during the period between 1936 and 1939, when he was at the helm, that French aircraft production dropped vertically. He had no idea of blitzkrieg warfare and neglected tank production. He shared the responsibility for the uncompleted Maginot defences from the sea to Montmédy. Gamelin was among the soldiers and statesmen arraigned at Riom for the defeat of France; in September 1940 he was detained in a fortress by Pétain's orders.



Pierre LAVAL

Born in 1883. After working his way through his legal studies to qualification he turned to politics and claimed to be a Socialiste-Révolutionnaire, under which label he became a Deputy. An open defeatist during the war of 1914–18. In 1926 he transferred to the Right, and it seems that his pro-German activities date from this period. As Foreign Minister he was concerned in the Saar plebiscite; he shut his eyes to Hitler's introduction of conscription. Later he was a party to the understanding which encouraged Mussolini to attack Abyssinia. In 1936, with Laval still in office, Hitler occupied the demilitarized Rhineland; a few weeks later the Popular Front Government was in power and Laval had left office for the nonce. He came back in June 1940 as Vice-Premier in time to assist with the surrender of France.

The real Gauleiter of France, he is thought to have manoeuvred the selection of Marshal Pétain as a figurehead who would command respect and obedience. In December 1940 Laval overreached himself and was dismissed by the Marshal, but he reappeared in April 1942 as Chief of the Government, ousting Darlan from that position. After this he became the arch-collaborationist, working always to aid Germany. With his crony Marcel Déat he was shot at and wounded on April 27, 1941, during a Fascist Legion ceremony at Versailles.



CREATING A NEW DUTCH ARMY AND AIR FORCE

In addition to training establishments in Britain the Royal Netherlands Government had other centres in Canada and the United States. Top right, an Army camp at Stratford, Ontario, where Dutch nationals from all parts of North America were trained. Below, Dutch student-pilots at a U.S. Army base are inspected by their commander, Major-General L. H. van Oyen (centre). They were here given basic and advanced instruction under a programme worked out by remnants of the Netherlands East Indies Air Force in coordination with the U.S. Army Air Force. Another photograph of General van Oyen is in page 2105.









ROYAL NETHERLANDS NAVY AND MERCHANT MARINE

The Netherlands destroyer 'Isaac Sweers' (above, where an anti-aircraft gun crew is seen at practice) with H.M. destroyers 'Sikh,' 'Maori' and 'Legion' engaged a strong Italian cruiser force in the Mediterranean in December 1941: one enemy cruiser was sunk, the other was left ablaze; an enemy M.T.B. was sunk and a torpedo-boat damaged. Six officers and men of the 'Isaac Sweers' were awarded British decorations for their part in this gallant operation. Bottom left, in November 1941 a Dutch Maritime Court was set up in the Middlesex Guildhall, Westminster, to deal with offences committed in Netherlands ships at sea.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Pictorial Press; G.P.U., Sport & General

FREE BELGIUM AND HOLLAND, FIGHTING FRANCE, AND NORWAY

A counterpart to Chapters 218 and 219, the following pages tell the story of the progress made by the Free Governments in London, the French National Committee and the Danish Council, in the task of organizing for the liberation of oppressed Europe. Except for Fighting France, where the narrative ends with the opening of the United Nations' campaign for the recapture of North Africa, events are taken up to the end of 1942

The Free Belgian Government in Britain was fortunate in having funds for prosecuting the war at the side of the United Nations, since a great part of its gold reserve had been saved from the Nazis. Some of this Belgian gold was of the utmost assistance to Britain. At the beginning of March 1941 the Chancellor of the Exchequer explained to M. Gutt (Belgian Minister of Finance) that Great Britain had bled herself white to pay for deliveries of war material from America. Some days might elapse before the Lend-Lease Bill was passed, and deliveries might be stopped meanwhile if Britain could not find gold to pay for them. So Belgium was asked to help by the loan of 3,000,000 ounces of gold, and within three days the requisite agreement was signed. The gold, said M. Gutt in a broadcast on April 12, 1943, had now been returned to the Belgian Government in Britain.

At the beginning of 1942 the 350,000 tons of Belgian merchant tonnage which came into the service of the United Nations had been reduced by nearly half, though a portion of this wastage was made up by new construction.

War Effort of Free Belgium

Over 300 officers and men had lost their lives in war service. More than 100 fishing vessels were converted to patrol vessels, balloon-barrage boats and minesweepers, while most of the rest continued to ply their trade and bring supplies to British ports. In the Belgian section of the Royal Navy corvettes flying the national colours took their part in escorting convoys. The section at the end of 1941 numbered 14 officers and 250 other ranks. A training centre for Petty Officers and Engine Room Artificers was opened in August 1941. D. Gelnyckens, a cadet of the section, came first in the final examination of his class at the Royal Naval College in May 1942.

In the air offensive against the Nazis Belgian airmen fought side by side with British pilots. There were special Belgian squadrons, in some cases commanded by British leaders and in others under Belgian officers. In November 1941 the Belgian Croix de Guerre was conferred upon Squadron-Leader Mills Richey, R.A.F., for bravery and coolness while leading Belgian fighter pilots on operations over the Continent. A few weeks later M. Gutt presented the Croix to the relatives of ten Belgian airmen killed in action, and decorations for gallantry were given to nine Belgian airmen.



STANDARD FOR BELGIAN AIR FORCE

As told in the text, when Belgium's Aviation Militaire was reconstituted on British soil (February 12, 1942) her Finance and Defence Minister, M. Camille Gutt, presented an historic standard saved from the enemy and brought to Britain in 1940. Left, M. Gutt; right, Lieut.-Col. Wouters, C.B.E., M.C., Commandant of the Aviation Militaire. *Photo, Fox*

The Aviation Militaire of Belgium was reconstituted on British soil on February 12, 1942. Then, in the presence of Sir Archibald Sinclair, M. Gutt presented an historic standard to the new Air Force. The flag had originally been given to one of the Belgian air regiments by King Albert. After the capitulation of May 28, 1940, it had been brought to Britain by an air officer. In January 1942 Squadron-Leader Leroy Davivier had been the first Allied officer in the R.A.F.V.R. to receive the command of an entirely British squadron. He led his aircraft in one of the first assaults on Dieppe (when also a Belgian formation was taken into battle by its own officer), and in the following September was promoted Wing-Commander.

The war effort of the Belgian Congo was a notable contribution to the Allied cause. Under two agreements (January 21, 1941 and June 5, 1942) Britain agreed to take copper, cotton, copal, ground nuts and palm kernels. Over and above these commodities there were available tin, tin ore, tungsten ore, zinc, lead, manganese. At the same time as the second Purchase Agreement a military agreement also was signed with Britain.

The Dutch Merchant Marine contributed 2,500,000 tons to the United Nations' shipping pool, and some 20,000 seamen had come over to the Allies with the ships. Up to the end of June 1941 war losses had amounted to about 370,000 tons; the Merchant Marine had borne a share of the evacuation of Allied forces from Greece and Crete.

Free Netherlands Government

Dutch Naval vessels took turn with those of the Allies in convoy and patrol duty, and Netherlands submarines sank Italian tankers and supply ships in the Mediterranean. The Netherlands Premier, Dr. G. S. Gerbrandy, in his New Year broadcast to occupied Holland on January 1, 1942, said that Queen Wilhelmina had awarded 290 distinctions to personnel of the Netherlands Navy and Merchant Marine during the year.

In the previous November Prince Bernhard had presented the Queen with a cheque for 6,500,000 guilders (raised by contributions of the Dutch



ARMOURED COLUMN OF THE BELGIAN CONGO FORCE

The small Congo 'Force Publique' at the outbreak of war had been a constabulary rather than an army, but its units were strengthened and further equipped to take an important part in the reconquest of Abyssinia, after a journey of 1,000 miles up the Congo river and another 700 overland to Juba. In May 1942 an extensive reorganization was carried out in readiness for further operations with the Allies.

Photo, Keystone

throughout the world) to build a new destroyer to replace the "Van Galen" (see page 1523) sunk by the Germans in May 1940. A typical example of skill and bravery occurred in January 1942, when the Dutch tug "Zwarte Zee" rescued the 5,000-ton merchantman "Macbeth" in mid-ocean, towing the vessel 900 miles in terrible weather to a safe port. In December 1941 had come Japan's attack upon British and American territories in the Far East, and the threat to the Netherlands East Indies. The events which led up to this crisis are recounted in Chapter 207; in that Chapter and the one which follows it is the story of the attack upon the Dutch islands and the heroic resistance of the Dutch and Indonesian garrisons. During those difficult months Queen Wilhelmina was a continual inspiration to her peoples. War was declared upon Japan on December 8, and a Proclamation by the Queen was read by the Netherlands Premier, broadcasting from Radio Orange that night. At the first meeting of the Pacific War Council in London (February 10) Dr. Gerbrandy and Jonkheer van Verduynen (Netherlands Minister to Britain) represented the Netherlands Government.

In London the Dutch Government called up all Netherlands subjects aged 17–42. A contingent of Dutch soldiers arrived from Canada in April 1942, and a detachment came from South Africa to join the Netherlands Brigade. In May Great Britain and the Netherlands Government concluded an agreement for the organization and employment of Dutch troops in the United Kingdom. Some 600 cadets of the Netherlands East Indies Army and Navy Air Forces, who had escaped from Java, reached San Francisco by way of Australia and went for training to Jackson, Missouri.

A new destroyer, the "Tjerk Hiddesz," built on the Clyde, went into service with the Royal Netherlands Navy in July. In Aug. six officers and men of the destroyer "Isaac Sweers" (see page 1896) received British decorations for their part in a Mediterranean night action: one received the D.S.O., two the D.S.C., and three the D.S.M. The senior officer was awarded the O.B.E. Four airmen of the N.E.I. Army Air Force were awarded British decorations in July. Dutch and Indonesian airmen continued to escape from Java and Sumatra to Australia, whence they were sent on their way to America for training and organization. A contingent of troops evacuated from the N.E.I. arrived in August at the Dutch West Indian island of Curaçao. (See p. 2128.)

In May 1942, two years after the German invasion of Holland, the status of the British and United States missions was raised to that of an Embassy. In the middle of June Queen Wilhelmina and the Foreign Minister, M. van Kleffens, reached Ottawa. After a short stay the Queen went to Lee, Massachusetts, to see Princess Juliana, and on the 29th President Roosevelt there paid her a visit. On August 6 the Queen addressed Congress at Washington. "No surrender," she said, was the motto of her people. "We are with you and the other United Nations to the last." On August 26 she arrived in London in time to attend at the Albert Hall a

Queen Wilhelmina in U.S.A.



BIRTHDAY GIFT TO A BRAVE QUEEN

By her brave and spirited leadership Queen Wilhelmina helped her subjects to face months of setback and adversity. To mark her 61st birthday Dutch people all over the world contributed 6,300,000 guilders for the purchase of a successor to the destroyer 'Van Galen,' which went down fighting during the German attack on Rotterdam (see pp. 1271 and 1523). Here Prince Bernhard of the Netherlands hands the cheque to Her Majesty.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

LAUNCH OF U.S.S. 'IOWA'

On the morning of August 27, 1942, the great U.S. battleship 'Iowa' slid down the ways in Brooklyn Navy Yard into the East River. This photograph was taken shortly before, while the final touches were being given for the ceremony. First of a class of six, she had been laid down in June 1940; she was 880 feet long over all, with a beam of 108 feet, and displaced 45,000 tons (52,000 with full load). Unofficially she was credited with a potential speed of 35 knots, and, looking at her clean, graceful lines, one can well imagine that even this figure might be excelled. Her main armament was to be nine 16-inch guns of 50 calibre, with a secondary armament of twenty 5-inch of 38 calibre. Provision was made for four aircraft. Her sister ships were 'New Jersey,' 'Missouri,' 'Wisconsin,' 'Illinois,' and 'Kentucky,' some laid down in 1940 and the rest the following year. In magnitude even these giants were eclipsed by the five Montana class battleships under construction: displacement, 58,000 tons (65,000 full load); length 925 feet and beam 120 feet; all were laid down in 1941.

Direct colour photograph by Dmitri Kessel



NAZI VANDALISM AS SEEN BY THOSE WHO STROVE TO STAY IT

FIREMEN ARTISTS' GRIM RECORD OF RAID DEVASTATION



DRESSING STATION — Reginald Mills



THE ASSEMBLY ROOMS, BATH — Norman Hepple



ST. CATHERINE'S CHAPEL, EXETER — Leonard Rosoman



ST. ALBAN'S, WOOD STREET, LONDON — J. Kingsley Sutton



QUEEN'S HALL: DISCORD — F. T. W. Cook



EARLY MORNING, HIGH STREET, CANTERBURY — Bernard Hailstone

Exhibited at Burlington House, London, August 1942

Reproduced from direct colour photographs



TRIBUTE TO THE AMERICAN HEROES OF PEARL HARBOUR, DECEMBER 7, 1941

Men from the United States Naval Air Station of Manoche, in Hawaii, are placing Hawaiian garlands on the flag-decorated graves of comrades killed in the Japanese attack of six months before. In the background is Diamond Head. The graves were dug along the shore of the Pacific, in an extremely beautiful setting.

Direct colour photograph by Associated Press

demonstration in which Dutch people were celebrating her birthday.

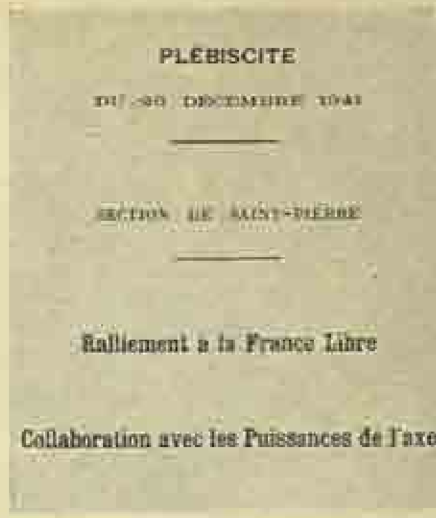
As 1942 opened Free French H.Q. in London were presented with the problem of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, 10 miles S. of Newfoundland. A force under Admiral Muselier had landed there on December 24, 1941, and seized the Governor, who had instituted what was described as a reign of terror, with reprisals against supporters of the Allies. Muselier's action raised diplomatic difficulties, and Vichy tried to bring pressure to bear through the United States Government. The seeds were sown of dissensions which later hindered agreement between pro-Ally Frenchmen in North Africa and De Gaulle's supporters.

Cordial relations with America were of paramount importance, and naturally the U.S. Government had to be persuaded that the Free French really represented Frenchmen and had a policy consonant with democratic principles. The French National Committee in London had declared its sympathy with the Washington Declaration by 26 countries (January 1, 1942). On March 2 the U.S. Government stated that it had recognized the authority of the Free French over French islands in the Pacific, and that America would cooperate for the defence of these territories. On April 4 it announced the establishment of a U.S. Consulate-General at Brazzaville—"in view of the importance of French Equatorial Africa in the united war effort."

French National Committee

On May 5 there came the British landings in Madagascar (see Chapter 225) to forestall a possible Japanese use of that territory. In the West Indian island of Martinique the efforts of the United States Government to come to agreement with Admiral Robert, the Vichy commander, had proved inconclusive; Robert had been willing to immobilize three French warships there, but not to hand over the considerable tonnage of merchant shipping in the harbours. On May 27 General de Gaulle said that the Martinique negotiations had raised the issue of the status of the Free French. He characterized the United States' view of the Free French movement as an entirely military one as "playing with words," and said it was impossible for the Free French to restrict themselves to "providing cannon-fodder and firing parties for war against the Axis." He wished to broaden the basis of the movement, to exclude no Frenchman who would work for France against the Axis.

A notable change was made in the title of the movement on July 14—*le Quatorze Juillet*, anniversary of the taking of the Bastille, 1789. Henceforth "Fighting France" was to be the name. Definitions of the movement and of the French National Committee were agreed with the British Government. On the 9th the U.S. Government had appointed Admiral Stark and Brig.-General Bolte to consult with the Committee in London on all matters relating to the conduct of the war. A memorandum to General de Gaulle announced the U.S. Government's agreement with the view of the Committee that the destiny and political organization of France must be determined by the free expression of the French people. Another stage in the recognition of Fighting France was

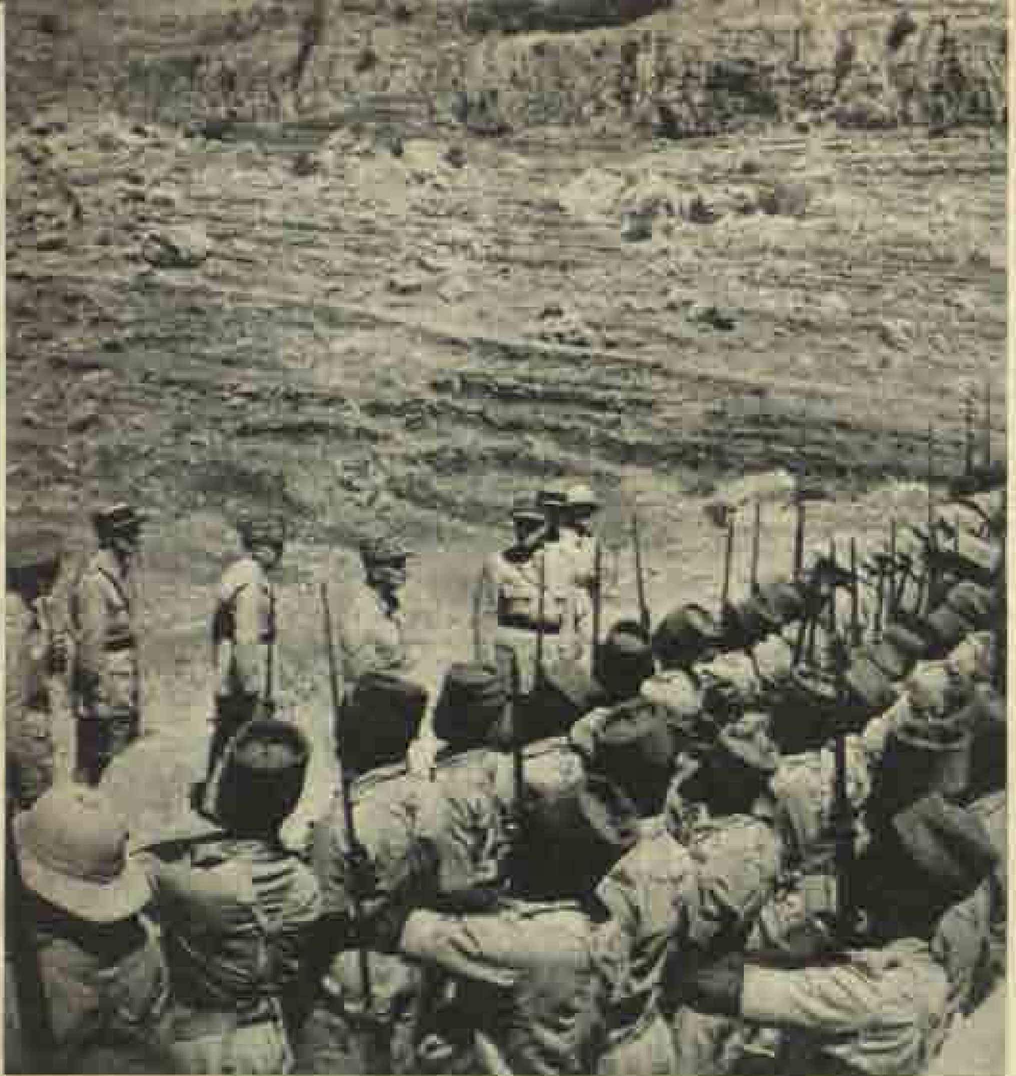




MUSELIER OCCUPIES ST. PIERRE AND THE MIQUELONS

Acting under the orders of the Free French National Committee, Admiral Muselier (inset) on December 24, 1941, landed a force on the small French islands of St. Pierre, Grand and Petit Miquelon, 10 miles S. of Newfoundland. Lower photograph, some of the landing party; top, form for the plebiscite held on Christmas Day, which resulted in almost all the islanders rallying to Free France

Photos, Associated Press; "New York Times" Photos



DE GAULLE'S VISIT TO FIGHTING FRENCH IN LIBYA

In September 1942, after a conference with the commanders in Syria, General de Gaulle went to Libya, where he decorated General Koenig. At top, with Generals Catroux and Rumblot, he is seen at a parade of coloured troops. Lower photograph shows airmen of the Fighting French "Lorraine" Bombing Squadron, in front of one of their Blenheim bombers.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Commissariat National à l'Information



reached in August when the validity of its passports was acknowledged by the Governments of the British Commonwealth, of the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., Belgium and the Netherlands, and of many Latin American countries. It was announced from Moscow on September 27 that the Soviet had agreed that the French National Committee was the only body entitled to organize the participation in the war of French citizens and to represent their interests.

The movement itself was reinforced by French leaders who from time to time made their way to Britain: André Philip, former Deputy for Lyons, who was appointed National Commissioner for the Interior and for Labour; Charles Vallin, a former vice-president of the French Social Party (earlier the Croix de Feu). In October 1942 he was sent on a mission to the French troops on the Chad-Libyan border.

De Gaulle's Inspiring Leadership

General de Gaulle was indefatigable in welding together the Fighting French and building up military forces to aid the Allies. On January 20, 1942, he declared in a broadcast that Free France and Russia were allies: "Every German soldier killed or frozen in Russia, and every German gun, plane or tank destroyed on the Russian front gives France another chance to rise and conquer." The return of Pierre Laval to power in April called forth a striking broadcast from the Free French leader. The new Vichy Government, said De Gaulle, was just another stage in the game Hitler had started playing against France and the world in June 1940. At the end of April he called upon Frenchmen to make a nation-wide silent demonstration on May 1 "against slavery, misery and starvation."

The General visited Syria in August and conferred with General Catroux. At Beirut he met Mr. Wendell Willkie. On the way to the Chad Territory he took the opportunity to see the Fighting French troops under General Larminat in the Western Desert and to decorate General Koenig, hero of Bir Hakeim (see Chapter 224), with the Cross of Liberation. At Brazzaville he saw Lord Swinton, British Minister of State for the West African Colonies. On September 25 General de Gaulle was back in London. Six weeks later (November 8) as the Americans were landing in Algeria, he sounded a clarion call to Frenchmen in North Africa to join the Allies. Next day (9th) General Henri Giraud arrived in Algiers to lead the French movement for liberation and to organize the Army to fight alongside the Allies. The political and



GENERAL ALEXANDER WITH HEROES OF BIR HACHEIM

Accompanied by General Larminat (left), General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander inspects a unit of Fighting French Bren carriers and crews. He had just decorated officers and men for gallantry at Bir Hacheim under the leadership of General Koenig, whom General de Gaulle personally presented with the Cross of Liberation in September 1942.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

military events in North Africa are dealt with in another Chapter, but a short account of General Giraud's adventures belongs here.

The Germans announced on April 25, 1942, that Giraud had escaped from the prisoner-of-war camp at Koenigstein, and they offered a reward of 100,000 Reichsmarks for his capture (see illus., p. 2168). By way of Switzerland he reached Vichy, whence came reports that he had signed a pledge of fidelity to Pétain but had refused to pledge himself not to take up arms against the Germans. When the time for the Allied operations against North Africa approached he had been brought across the Mediterranean in a British submarine.



Norway's chief contribution to the war effort of the United Nations was on the oceans. Over 1,000 merchantmen (4,000,000 tons gross) had come over to the Allies, with 30,000 seamen. In tankers and such craft Norway had owned one-fifth of the world tonnage, and this type of vessel proved particularly valuable. By the autumn of 1942 more than 300 Norwegian merchant ships had been lost by enemy action, but Norway was given a share of newly built vessels, and certain American ships were transferred to her. In December 1941 the "Kong Haakon VII," a cargo ship of 10,000 tons, was launched by the King himself at a Scottish shipyard, first of the replacements. (See illus., page 2174.)

The Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Norwegian Navy was Rear-Admiral Elias Corneliussen (appointed in November 1941). By the end of 1942 that Navy comprised 25 warships—destroyers, submarines, corvettes, motor torpedo-boats and motor launches—and about 30 auxiliary vessels. The personnel numbered 490 officers, with about 4,500 petty officers and ratings (about 1,200 posted as gunners in Norwegian merchant ships). Norwegian warships operated with other Allied Naval units on escort and other duties. In the remarkable raids on Norwegian islands they transported troops to the scene, and one such combined operation was entirely a Norwegian affair. Destroyers of the Royal Norwegian Navy escorted troopships in the landings on North Africa (November 8, 1942).

Around the nucleus of some hundred Norwegians in Britain in the summer of 1940 a number of Norwegian Field Units were built up, including infantry, artillery and specialized branches such as parachute troops. They were trained with British units and also at a Norwegian Military College set up for the purpose. From this force went units to assist in the Commando raids mentioned above. Behind the scheme was the future plan of providing officers and N.C.O.s for the people's army to be levied when the work of liberation should be begun. At the head of the Norwegian Army was Major-General Johan Beichmann. A High Command was established in February 1942 with

Norway's New Army



NEW WARSHIP FOR FIGHTING FRENCH NAVY

In June 1942 Admiral Auboyneau (inset), who succeeded Adm. Muselier as C.-in-C. Fighting French Navy, visited some of the ships of that growing fleet, and is here inspecting one recently handed over by the builders. The inset photograph was taken in September, at the opening of a Naval training centre named 'Bir Hacheim' in honour of the memorable stand by General Koenig's force.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Central Press



FREE DANES CELEBRATE CONSTITUTION DAY

The ceremony was held on June 6, 1941, in the wrecked church of St. Clement Danes, in the Strand (destroyed by German bombs on the night of October 8, 1940). A new national flag was presented and dedicated, to replace the one destroyed by enemy action. Another photograph of the church is in page 1248

Photo, Topical Press

Major-General Wilhelm Hansteen as C-in-C. All three arms—Navy, Army and Air Force—thus came under General Hansteen's supreme command.

In April 1941 the Royal Norwegian Army Air Force and the Naval Air Force were united under the command of Rear-Admiral Hjalmar Riiser-Larsen, who was a seasoned airman as well as a naval officer. He had been an explorer in both the Arctic and the Antarctic, and his knowledge of these regions was a valuable asset. About 120 Norwegian airmen had escaped to Britain after the disastrous campaign of April 1940. A training centre was established near Toronto in Canada and here a Norwegian Air Force was rebuilt. It happened that 100 modern aircraft had been ordered by the Norwegian Government from America in March 1940; these were delivered to the training centre and taken over by the eager airmen. As time went on there was a steady stream of other Norwegians. More aircraft were obtained, and the Air Force grew rapidly.

At the end of 1942 a squadron was operating from bases in Iceland, equipped with Northrop seaplanes. They escorted merchantmen, chased U-boats and did patrol work, besides ambulance flying. Fighter squadrons operated from British bases and carried out raids on enemy-occupied territory in France. A Coastal Command unit, equipped with modern long-range flying boats, took part in distant ocean patrols against enemy planes and submarines. For the sake of the training and experience a number of Norwegian pilots served in the Ferry Command, bringing bombers to Britain across the Atlantic.

Though Denmark remained neutral and was in friendly relations with Germany there were many Danes throughout the world who were only too willing to fight and work against the Nazis to free their country from German hegemony. In Britain there were the Free Danish Association and the Danish Council. On March 11, 1942, the British Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs stated that the British Government had recognized the Council. On this same occasion it was announced that that Government had decided to recognize Count Reventlow (Danish Minister in London) and Dr. Henrik Kauffman (Danish Minister in Washington) as continuing to be responsible for the protection of such Danish interests as were not under enemy control. Dr. Kauffman had been dismissed by the Copenhagen Government after he had agreed to place Greenland under the protection of the United States (April 11, 1941).

On January 2, 1942, Kauffman proclaimed his adherence to the principles of the United Nations' Declaration of January 1, an action in which he was supported by the Danish Council in London and by other Free Danish organizations. Count Reventlow had broken with the Copenhagen Government in December 1941. In the following March he was dismissed from his post because he had assumed the office of honorary president of the Free Danish Association of Britain. All officials in the diplomatic and consular services who had sided with the Count were dismissed at the same time.

The Chairman of the Danish Council was Mr. John Christmas Moller, a former Conservative leader and member of the Coalition Government. He had been forced out of office on October 3, 1940, and ejected from Parliament in the following January. He escaped with his wife and son to Sweden, and later visited the organizations of Free Danes in the United States and Canada.



STANDARD OF FREE NORWAY

At a Scottish base, where Norwegian Army units train for the task of liberation, General Fleischner chats to the standard-bearer after inspecting the men. General Fleischner commanded the Norwegian forces at Narvik.

Photo, Photopress

CANADA, SOUTH AFRICA AND NEW ZEALAND PREPARE FOR THE OFFENSIVE

This Chapter continues the war story of the Dominions during the first half of 1942. Australian events are dealt with in Chapter 211, covering the same period. Despite setbacks and disappointments it was a fruitful six months in which war production and organization were immensely improved ready for the coming switch to the offensive

THE British High Commissioner for Canada, Mr. Malcolm MacDonald, said on May 1, 1942, that already in Canada's Navy, Army and Air Force there were many more men than at any period during the war of 1914–18. Even so, Canada was intensifying its war effort and, over and above all this, plans were being prepared for a scheme of social security to meet conditions in the post-war world. The Dominion (population 11,500,000) was awaiting with high expectation the moment when the Canadian Army in Britain, which was to be greatly reinforced toward the end of 1942, could form one of the sharpest and most powerful spearheads of an invasion of the Continent. Visiting Canada during the first six months of 1942, Lieutenant-General McNaughton, Commander-in-Chief of the Canadian Army in Britain, disclosed that such a form of military strategy was in prospect.

As had been the case from the outset of the war, the feature most emphasized among Canada's contributions to the united effort was her incalculably valuable part in the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan. By May 1942, two years and four months after its inception, the plan was in full operation. Striking recognition of this achievement was reflected in the decision of those members of the United Nations with air training projects in operation on the North American Continent to hold a conference in Ottawa that month. The object was to discuss methods for coordinating the plan with the air training programmes of the United States of America and of others among the United Nations. During the January–June period men flowed into the Canadian armed forces at a steady rate, but an interesting feature of the figures was the planned drop in recruitment for the Air Force. Enlistment figures published under the authority of the Hon. J. T. Thorson, Minister of National War Services, and issued in May, showed that intakes to the end of 1941, besides the programme for the current year, were those given in the table (foot of first column).

Air Training Plan

	1941 Intake	1942 Programme	Prospective Total to March 31, 1943
Navy	27,000	13,000–13,000	40,000–40,000
Army	295,000	90,000–100,000	385,000–395,000
Air Force	100,000	70,000–80,000	170,000–180,000
Totals	422,000	173,000–193,000	595,000–615,000

Figures are for enlistments only and do not indicate the number of men actually on strength.

The chief task of the Royal Canadian Air Force was the administration of the Air Training Plan. The United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada cooperated in this enterprise, but essentially it was Canadian: Canada supplied more than 80 per cent of the man-power, and paid 600 millions of Canadian dollars out of a total of 900 million dollars which the plan was costing. Apart from this the operational strength of the Air Force was rapidly increased. It was estimated that expenditures for home war establishment in 1942–43 would be about 315 million Canadian dollars—compared with 1939-40, over 28 million dollars; 1940–41, over 50 million dollars; 1941–42, about 115 million dollars. In addition to estimates for the current fiscal year, long-range commitments of 120 million dollars were made for home defence.

So far as the Navy was concerned its personnel, in July 1942, totalled more than 36,000; more than 6,000 young Canadians were on the waiting lists of 18 training establishments across Canada. During the period January–June, 1942, the Army underwent expansion and reorganization. Its current programme called for expenditures of 1,000,000,000 Canadian dollars. In July 1942 the active army numbered more than 320,000, a large percentage being overseas. The Royal Canadian Air Force had a personnel exceeding 115,000—exclusive of airmen of other nations attached to the Air Training Plan; and at the same time there were 22 R.C.A.F. squadrons overseas. The majority were in Britain,



OTTAWA CONFERENCE ON AIR TRAINING

A conference of the United Nations opened on May 18, 1942, and was attended by representatives of the Allied Powers having a direct interest in the Commonwealth Air Training Scheme. Here are representatives of the ABCD Powers: left to right, Major-General Barton K. Yount, U.S. Commanding General of the Flying Training School; Captain Harold H. Balfour, British Under-Secretary for Air; Major-General T. H. Shen, Commander Chinese Air Forces in the U.S.A.; Major-General L. H. van Oyen, Netherlands East Indies Army

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



CANADA BUILT AND MANNED SCORES OF CORVETTES

A direct answer to the U-boat menace, the corvette was a small, sturdy and speedy vessel with formidable armament—able to be built in considerable quantity in a short time. (See illus., p. 1763 and also that facing p. 2039.) Above, at a Canadian west coast shipyard, a corvette is being launched sideways into the Navy basin.

Photo, Pictorial Press

although one was in the Far East and another in the near East. Up to March 12 a total of 1,857 Canadians had been killed, 466 were missing, and 1,817 had been taken prisoner.

As in Australia, an industrial revolution had resulted from the creation of war industries in Canada since 1939. Under the supervision of the Department of Munitions and Supply, war industries were built up in all parts of the country. More than 600,000 Canadians were employed directly or indirectly because of this industrial expansion, and it was expected that by the end of 1942 another 100,000 workers would have been brought in.

Canada's War Bill

Between the end of 1939 and March 1942 orders valued at more than 3,447,000,000 Canadian dollars had been placed for war equipment and supplies on behalf of the United Kingdom and Canadian Governments and those of other countries. Of this sum, 2,047,000,000 dollars represented an order placed on Canada's account. The aircraft industry alone, in July 1942, employed about 50,000 persons where, in pre-war days, it had given work to a mere 1,000. The ship-building industry, working on a 550,000,000 dollar programme, employed directly and indirectly about 60,000; chemicals and explosives, over 45,000; tanks and mechanical transport, about 67,000 directly and indirectly.

All this costly expenditure on war involved a lowering of the standard of living. In order to meet the war bill (and to secure the highest revenue in Canada's history) taxation was increased sharply on incomes and on many forms of goods and services; also entirely new taxes were imposed. It was evident in June 1942 that income tax and national defence taxes, till then raised separately, would be combined with a compulsory savings deduction and taken from salaries and wages, or would be collected by means of compulsory instalments. It was also clear then that the rate of excess profits would be raised from 75 per cent to 100 per cent (one-fifth of the amount raised at that rate to be returned after the war for the rehabilitation of business and industry in the post-war period).

On January 18 Field-Marshal Sir John Dill arrived in Ottawa to confer with Mr. MacKenzie King, the Ministers of National Defence, Navy and Air, and their Chiefs of Staff.

Canada's Overseas Army

A few days later, on the 26th, Mr. MacKenzie King announced the formation of an Overseas Canadian Army consisting of two Army Corps. Making the first comprehensive statement of his 1942 plans, the Prime Minister said the new programme would create a modern Canadian Overseas Army, self-contained and capable of operating in any theatre of war. One Corps would consist of three infantry divisions and two tank brigades; the other of two armoured divisions. Speaking of the threat on the Pacific coast, he said a reorganization would take place of the reserve Army in Canada, numbering 140,000 men.

Concerning Canadian agriculture, he said it would be committed to the utmost effort to produce foodstuffs under large contracts for Britain. The total foreseen for 1942 would be $180,000,000 in bacon, milk, eggs, cheese, apples and other products, exclusive of wheat. As to financial dealings between Britain and Canada, Mr. MacKenzie King announced that a new footing had been



WOMEN INSPECTORS IN A QUEBEC SHELL FACTORY

Taken in May 1942, this photograph shows a batch of shiny 7.2-in. shells ready for the final gauging before delivery. Women trained under Canada's War Emergency Programme proved skilled and steady workers. A year later nearly a quarter of a million women were directly or indirectly employed in war industries.

Photo, Canadian Official

established. As a result, he offered a $1,000,000,000 (£250,000,000) gift to the British Government to cover all munitions and food supplies forwarded in the coming year. He estimated this sum would provide for all British purchases in Canada, until early 1943. Of the existing debt of Britain to Canada for past shipments, the Prime Minister said it stood at $700,000,000, adding that the new arrangement would convert this amount into an interest-free loan from Canada to Britain, to be reduced during the war by the proceeds of any sales made outside the United Kingdom of Canadian securities then held there, and also by the proceeds of redemptions of Canadian securities held in the United Kingdom falling due during the war. The appropriate interest rate on the new loan would be decided after the war. Meantime, the Canadian Government would buy outright all remaining Dominion and Canadian National Railway Securities held in Britain, amounting to $295,000,000. The idea behind the new financial deal was to relieve Britain of anxiety regarding Canadian sources of supply and to prevent a huge war debt piling up which might cause misunderstanding after the war.

An exchange of consular representatives with Russia was announced on February 5. On the 27th Mr. T. V. Soong, accompanied by Mme. Soong and the Chinese Military Mission, headed by four Major-Generals, arrived in Canada for consultation with Mr. MacKenzie King. Dr. Liu Shih-shun, the first Chinese Minister to Canada, presenting his letter of credence to the Governor-General, said the decision to exchange diplomatic missions was timely, and sprang from a desire to promote the cooperation between Canada and China which was already clear enough. General Sikorski, the Polish Prime Minister, accompanied by four Army and Air officers, arrived at Montreal on March 22 *en route* to Washington for conferences with President Roosevelt, after which he was to go to Ottawa to meet Mr. MacKenzie King. It was announced on May 20 that the Government had requested that Vichy consulates and agencies in Canada be closed.

New Diplomatic Missions

In March Nazi submarines were operating in Canadian waters, and on the 11th a freighter was torpedoed in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. An indication of Canada's attitude to the struggle in the south-west Pacific was given by the Prime Minister on March 25. Announcing that the Pacific Council was to be shifted to Washington, he said no Canadian troops were to be sent to Australia. The Government had rejected proposals to dispatch an expeditionary force to Australia because of commitments to send troops to Britain. A spotlight was thrown on Canada's part in the naval war by the arrival in Ottawa on April 24 of Admiral of the Fleet Sir Dudley Pound, the First Sea Lord, and Admiral Sir Charles Little, who went from Washington by air to confer with officials of the Royal Canadian Navy.



DEFENCE POST ON A WEST COAST HIGHWAY

The entry of Japan into the war brought a threat to Canada's west coast ports from across the Pacific, 4,500 miles away. Here is a roadside post on the Vancouver Island highways, typical of the land defences in that region (April 1942).

Photo, Pictorial Press

On May 11 Mr. MacKenzie King introduced to Parliament his Bill to remove from Canadian law the bar to conscription for overseas service, and announced that one of his Cabinet members, Mr. P. J. A. Cardin, of Quebec, had resigned in protest. The Cabinet split was the first faced by Mr. King in his long career. The Legislative Assembly in Quebec, on May 21, adopted by 61 votes to seven a resolution expressing the desire that the Federal Government should retain its voluntary enlistment policy and not impose conscription for overseas service, but also reiterating support for the best war effort possible. The Norwegian Prime Minister, Dr. Nygaardsvold, arrived in Ottawa on June 27 to confer with the Premier; 40 years earlier Dr. Nygaardsvold had helped to build newsprint mills in Canada. Another notable visitor was the King of the Hellenes, who arrived in Montreal on June 29 on his way to Ottawa.

A rationing system for tea and coffee and the reduction of the existing sugar rations were announced by the Wartime Prices Trade Board, on May 27.

One of the most vital links in establishing the security of the North American Continent since the completion of the Panama Canal was created by the opening of the Alaskan–Canadian military motor highway, 1,671 miles long. War supplies had been rolling over the highway in October 1941, but it was not until early in 1942 that the highway began to take some of the strain off shipping needed for other battle-fronts. The highway bridged a big gap in the United States defence system. Little of it was concrete or macadam; mostly it was built of earth or crushed stone. For the most part it ran well behind the coast-line, and was the first interior line of communication from the farms, factories and oil refineries of the mid-Continent to the United States' most exposed front—the North Pacific and Alaskan sector. In its peacetime potentialities the highway opened up a new era for Canada.

Alaskan Motor Highway

New dangers and responsibilities were thrust upon South Africa in 1942 by the war in the Far East. Even so, members of Parliament, like the South African people themselves, were fortified when grappling with new burdens by the knowledge that in Libya, as earlier in Abyssinia, South Africans had again shown their mettle. In their

splendid stand at Sidi Rezegh they had fought against massed tanks till their ammunition gave out. Their success at Bardia was in the nature of an avenging victory. Whether of Afrikaans or English speech the volunteers from South Africa, by their exploits in the air, on the land and at sea, showed themselves the equals of the men of Delville Wood and of the Boer War. A great many of the armoured cars with which South Africans harassed the Germans' retreat were made in South African workshops, just as were the ammunition and the explosives and other war materials which their sappers handled with such skill at Bardia.

Most of the Second South African Division was lost in Tobruk (June 21), but in a message to the British Government (made public on the 23rd) General Smuts said: "The spirit of South Africa matches that of its men at the front, and no setbacks or losses will affect our unalterable resolve to fight till final victory is won." Broadcasting from Pretoria on June 13—eve of United Nations' Day—General Smuts had indicated the sort of new world that South Africa envisaged: "What the infant League of Nations failed to achieve," he declared, "the United Nations will attempt, and will rebuild on deeper and surer foundations. We hope to build a union which no Hitler of the future, and not even hell itself, shall venture to challenge again." On June 27 he made a stirring recruiting appeal to the young manhood of South Africa, saying that the Libya losses would be more than made up. (The total European population of the Union of South Africa at May 6, 1941, was 2,192,185, according to the final census figures. Of this number, 1,109,289 were males and 1,082,896 females.)

Spirit of South Africa

All that the treachery of Japan achieved by confronting South Africa with a new and direct menace was a stiffening of the determination of South Africa's people. One of the greatest shocks which the Opposition received, in fact, was the threat to the life of the Union presented by Japan's assault on British and American territory. Nationalist leaders—those who believed it was a matter of indifference to South Africa who won the war in Europe, and those who openly or secretly desired a German victory—had for a long time looked upon the possibility of Japan controlling the Indian Ocean as one of the gravest challenges to White supremacy in the Union. As observers were quick to point out, the reticence in which the Nationalists took refuge from their dilemma did not raise their prestige. Not surprisingly, neither did it cure the quarrels of a domestic nature, which seemed to be as incurable as they were chronic.

Speaking at Durban on June 4, General Smuts said Japan was not only a danger to America, Britain, the Netherlands East Indies and Australia, but as much a danger to South Africa. Military authorities were directing attention away from the front up north to another possible front—the sea-front of the Union. They stressed the obvious fact that warfare in the Western Desert was entirely between armed forces, no civilian



SOUTH AFRICAN WAR STAMPS

Lieut. R. H. Kershaw, No. 3 Squadron, S. African Air Force, whose portrait (by Capt. Neville Lewis) appears on the 1½d. stamp, won his D.S.O. by alighting on the enemy airfield at Diredawa, Abyssinia, under fire and rescuing his Flight Commander, Captain Frost, in March 1941. The new 4d. war stamp is also illustrated.

element being involved. On the other hand, down at the Cape civilians must of necessity play a very great part in the event of an enemy assault, since every man, woman and child would be affected if Cape Town were attacked. Some of the Cape's defensive garrison was composed of part-time troops, and their training was of the utmost importance. One of the difficulties was to find sufficient time, since many worked long hours in the day-time, and devoted up to four nights a week, with Saturday afternoons, and even Sundays, to military training.

As Colonel A. H. Keith Jopp, Director of Coastal and Anti-Aircraft Artillery, said in February 1942 no South African who had visited one of the coastal towns since the war began (and particularly since Japan entered the war) could fail to realize that the Cape route was now second in importance only to the North Atlantic route. It served North Africa, carrying munitions and supplies to our fighting troops in the Western Desert. It took American and British aid to Russia through Iran, and was the very lifeline of supply to Allied possessions in the Far East. Along the same route came oil from Iran and the Dutch East Indies; raw materials from India, and foodstuffs from Australia and New Zealand. Moreover, no ship could travel from Britain or America to the Middle or Far East without stopping at some South African port for re-victualling and re-fuelling.

It was natural that the Japanese should look jealously at this Cape route, because their dreams of domination in the Far East could become realities only if that route was cut. To cut this lifeline Japan would have either to seize South Africa or to shatter the ports beyond hope of repair. To take and to hold South Africa Japan would have to seize Madagascar, to concentrate vast forces there, and to stage a full-scale invasion which would require a large fleet of transports and powerful naval squadrons—which, at the end of June 1942, she could not afford to detach from her Pacific gamble. (Durban became the Allies' most important naval base in the Indian Ocean after the loss of Singapore. Besides standing at the cross-roads of British and American supply routes Durban had a dry dock capable of taking large warships, thus providing an essential service without which a fleet could not operate efficiently.)

Local defence in South Africa was organized on lines similar to those in Australia and New Zealand. The Coast Defence System, apart from Air Defence, consisted mainly of shore-based artillery assisted by a sea-examination service. The spotting of approaching ships was done from the shore by signal stations manned by the Seaward Defence Force, and guns were immediately trained on all approaching ships (including fishing boats) until they were properly identified. In addition, interception patrols, anti-submarine patrols, and long-distance reconnaissance flights were continuously undertaken by coastal aircraft of the South African Air Force.

Local Defence

South Africa's peacetime economy was in many important respects ill-adapted for rapid conversion to war production, but she set to work with a will. At the end of June 1942 she was turning out in considerable quantities guns, shells, bombs, armoured cars, and other munitions and equipments of war.





WITH THE TRANSVAAL SCOTTISH IN LIBYA

Top, Field-Marshal Smuts addressing officers and men of the Transvaal Scottish Battalion during a visit to the Middle East in May 1942. The other two photographs show men of the same regiment in the final stages of the battle for Sollum earlier in the year: below, a party clearing houses where enemy troops were still holding out; right, a Colonel and his Adjutant watch operations from the barracks in Sollum, taken on January 12.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; South African Official



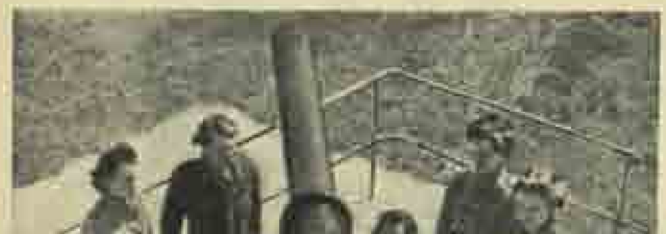
Moreover, her value as an arsenal was to be measured not only by the volume of output but by her geographical proximity to the Middle Eastern theatres of war. South Africa's productive achievements were attained in spite of a very large section of the community which was bitterly opposed to the war effort. Political considerations underlay many South African moves. Nevertheless, food and clothing restrictions were bringing home the urgent necessity of conserving all possible transport space for war materials for the fighting forces in North and East Africa. Wartime measures which gave a homely reminder to civilians in city and country areas from which the sound and fury of battle were far removed included the issue of smaller postage stamps. Another was the fact that because of lack of paper newspapers gave up reviewing books and publishing original articles. Shops very rarely wrapped up purchases. Menus at hotels were compulsorily cut down. Cornflakes and similar American products became unobtainable because they were no longer imported. The Union Budget, presented on February 25, involved new taxation amounting to £9,285,000.



GRAPHIC INSTRUCTION FOR COLOURED DRIVERS

It was found that the use of simple diagrams with picture-signs made it easy to instil into coloured South Africans the principles of driving and gear changing. Note the miniature lorries and road signs used with the relief map on the table.

Photo, Sport & General



SOUTH AFRICAN WOMEN IN COASTAL DEFENCE

Units of the Women's Army Auxiliary Services in the Union were selected for training in the instrumental side of artillery work for coastal defence. This group is being instructed in range-finding at a battery observation post on the coast

Photo, South African Official

General Smuts epitomized South Africa's main contribution to the war effort when he said that although South Africa had sent only two divisions to Egypt, the South African war effort was very much greater than that military effort implied. South Africa was the workshop of the Middle East and contributed largely towards its air power.

Diplomatic relations with Vichy were broken off on April 23. This meant that Canada and Eire were the only countries in the British Commonwealth maintaining relations with the Vichy Government. General Smuts' Note included the sentence: "We do not cease to cherish a firm faith in the resurrection of France, and we shall continue to labour and fight for the day when France will once more resume her proud place in the world and her proper role among the champions of the rights of man." Anti-British broadcasts from radio Madagascar were still being given; but it was a surprise when General Smuts announced in Pretoria on May 29 that South African forces were operating with the British troops in Madagascar.

Some account will now be given of the opposition to General Smuts. The National movement was very strong, and perhaps the greatest influence was exerted by the Herenigde Party, which wanted a republic.

Opposition in the Union

Other strong influences were the Afrikaaner Party, the Pirow Group, and the Ossewabrandwag. Dr. D. F. Malan led the H.P.; Dr. Havenga the Afrikaaner Party; Mr. Pirow was head of his own group, while the Ossewabrandwag was led by Dr. J. F. J. van Rensburg. The struggle between the groups was intense, and members of the Ossewabrandwag, for instance, could not stand as candidates of the Herenigde Party at elections. The weakness of the Nationalists was that they were divided among themselves.

On January 12, 1942, Dr. Malan gave notice that he would move that:

"In view of the serious crisis in which our country is involved through participation in

the war, the House declare that the highest national interest can only be served through the conversion of South Africa into a republic, separate from the British Crown and Empire and *free* and independent from any foreign Power: that such republic be not based on any foreign model, but be built up in accordance with our own national character and the traditions of people's government as embodied in the two late South African Republics, with the elimination, however, of all that is harmful in the present British liberal democracy and the necessary adaptation to modern conditions; that it be Christian-National in deed and character and that it be based on faithful maintenance of equal language and cultural rights for both sections of the European population; that it be designed to preserve white civilization in South Africa and to give protection against capitalist and parasitic exploitation of the population and against hostile and un-National elements."

On March 3 the Prime Minister ridiculed Dr. Malan's demand that South Africa should withdraw from the war and adopt the policy of neutrality.

A sensation was caused on January 20 when about 300 policemen suspected of subversive activities were detained. They had been rounded up without incident in the Johannesburg and Reef area.

Purge of Police Force

Although the South African Police Force was thousands strong, and the number of men affected formed only a very small percentage of a large and loyal body, the fact that the round-up was thought necessary was deplored as something blemishing the Force's fine record. Emergency regulations providing for the trial of serious cases of sabotage were promulgated on February 3, the death penalty being imposable in certain contingencies. It was also announced that it had been proved that Nazi agents operating from headquarters in Portuguese East Africa were responsible for blowing up the main high-tension pylons at Vereeniging connecting the Victoria Falls Power Station with the Rand gold mines.

On May 21 the post offices at Benoni and Alberton, near Germiston, and the old telephone exchange at Boksburg were heavily damaged by bomb explosions. Two days later telephonic communications were severed, waterworks were damaged, and an electric standard was dynamited in three explosions in Johannesburg and on the Reef. An attempt was made on June 1 to burn the residence of the Minister of Finance, Mr. J. H. Hofmeyr, in Pretoria. Bomb outrages and fires believed to be the work of incendiaries occurred in Bloemfontein on June 17.

Of all the Dominions New Zealand, up to the end of June 1942, had the most spectacular war record on the fields of battle. In other respects New Zealanders had also done exceptionally well. A fascinating feature of this small two-island Dominion, lying more than 12,000 miles from the Mother Country, concerns its key statistics. For example, her population is 1,636,000; the number of men of military age, 340,000. Yet, after almost two years of war (by June 1942) the mobilization of men and women for national service was:—

Active service overseas and in training	80,000
Home Defence not permanently mobilized (Home Guard, Territorials, and National Military Reserve) ..	138,000
Civil Defence units (Emergency Precautions Scheme and Women's War Service Auxiliary)	95,000
Total	313,000

The New Zealand Expeditionary Force, in January–June, 1942, consisted of the Division in the Middle East and garrisons in Fiji and elsewhere. There were also special units, such as the Forestry Company, the Railway Survey, Construction and Operating Companies, while the N.Z.E.F. was to be strengthened by an Army Tank Brigade, which was to commence training in New Zealand. In General Wavell's offensive in Libya the transport arrangements had been largely entrusted to New Zealand units, and the efficiency of supply columns contributed materially to the success of the campaign. The Long Range Desert Group comprised specially picked New Zealanders who penetrated far and wide through the deserts of Southern Libya and cooperated with the Free French from Chad Territory. A New Zealand Railway Survey Company operated in Eritrea, and a detachment of New Zealand railwaymen worthily represented the Dominion in besieged Tobruk. But up to June 1942 the most important contribution of the men of the N.Z.E.F. had been made in Greece and Crete.

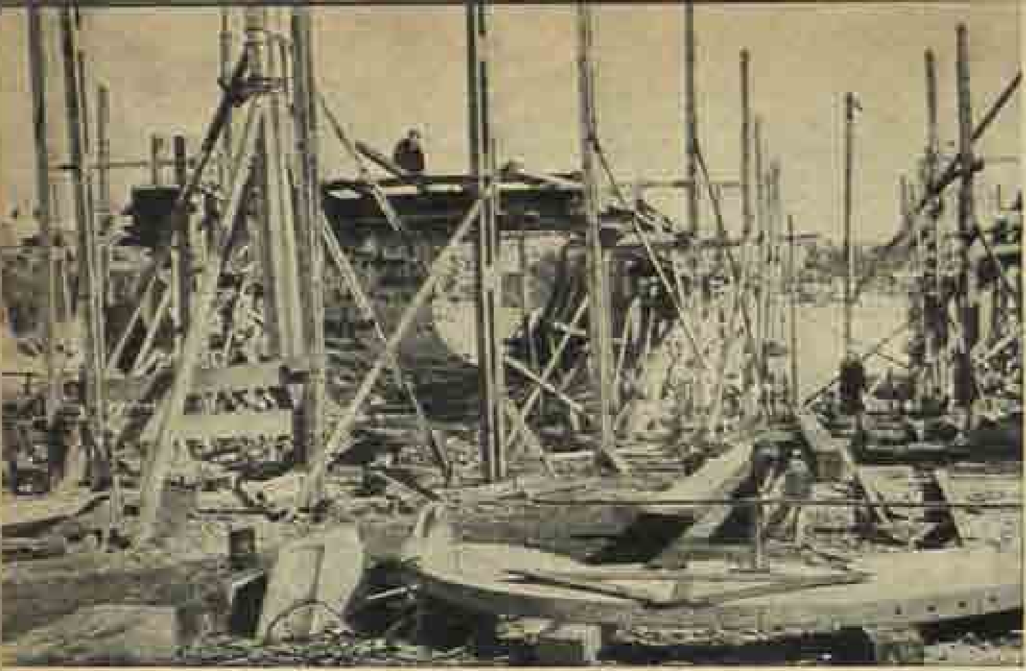
The Maori Battalion had played a most gallant and distinguished part in both these campaigns. The Government decided on March 4 to form a Maori Battalion for home defence. Recruiting among Maoris was entirely voluntary, and by June 1942, 4,717 had enlisted—some 38 per cent of Maoris of military age.

On September 11, 1941, His Majesty had accorded the distinction of the name "Royal New Zealand Navy" to the naval forces of the Dominion. New Zealanders in naval service, in New Zealand and elsewhere, numbered over 4,000, more than five times as many as at the outbreak of war. Nearly 3,000 recruits awaited entry into the Navy. H.M.N.Z.S. "Tamaki"—the modern training establishment set up in 1941—turned out 600 naval recruits a year.



NEW ZEALAND REHEARSES HER DEFENCES

Shore guns are manned, and in the foreground infantry deploy in manoeuvres designed to test the defences against invasion from the sea. By the middle of 1942 the Dominion of New Zealand had mobilized 138,000 men for Home Defence, while her Civil Defence services were staffed by 95,000 men and women. *Photo, Associated Press*



NEW ZEALAND BUILDS HER OWN MINESWEEPERS

Composite steel-and-timber craft were built for the dangerous task of clearing navigation channels of magnetic mines. Two are seen under construction at Auckland, New Zealand. Being mainly of wood, the hull was less susceptible to the mines than that of a steel ship. (See also illus., page 2208.)

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

A New Zealander commanded the wing of the R.A.F. in Russia. In Britain, there was a separate New Zealand Bomber Squadron which operated from the earliest days of the war. A Fighter Squadron and a Torpedo Bomber Squadron were also entirely composed of New Zealanders. The Fighter Squadron manned Spitfires purchased by public subscriptions in New Zealand. The Royal New Zealand Air Force then also maintained flights of aircraft in the Pacific Islands. More than 136 awards and honours had been bestowed upon New Zealand airmen (including the Victoria Cross on Sergeant-pilot Ward, of Wanganui). Over 4,500 New Zealand airmen had gone overseas, including 500 who were in the Royal Air Force when the war broke out. New Zealand's output under the Empire Training Scheme was at full flood and was to provide annually 5,000 airmen. Air Commodore Goddard, Chief of Air Staff, surveying New Zealand's air strength in June, said that since December the number of New Zealand's air squadrons had increased seven times, enabling 10 times the weight of bombs to be carried and 16 times as many guns.

Pre-war preparations had enabled New Zealand to take the Empire Air Scheme in its stride. New Zealand was the first Empire country to establish a pre-entry educational scheme to fit civilians for entry into the Air Force. There was also the Air Training Corps to give preliminary air education to youths of

The workshops of the New Zealand Naval Base were the most up-to-date in the Southern Hemisphere. Nearly 1,000 New Zealanders served in the Royal Navy in the many spheres where it operated. Even in 1942 some were in command of minesweepers in the English Channel. Over 400 were in the Fleet Air Arm. In the Merchant Navy hundreds of New Zealanders were rendering another valuable service, and they shared fully dangers and hazards of the Battle of the Atlantic and the enemy raiders lurking in every ocean.

American Forces for New Zealand

Mr. Walter Nash (first Minister to the United States), when he arrived in Washington on January 31, 1942, suggested to the Press that unified war command for the entire Pacific area should be established under an American Naval officer; that a Pacific War Council, sitting in Washington, should deal with the political problems of the United Nations whose possessions border the Pacific—the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, China and the Netherlands. On February 10 the arrival in Wellington of a vanguard of a United States naval force, and the landing of American reinforcements at stations along the route from Pearl Harbour, was announced. Vice-Admiral H. F. Leary, of the United States Navy, the new C.-in-C. of the combined naval forces in the Australian and New Zealand area, it was announced on February 12, was losing no time in completing his plans for coordinating the resources under his command. He discussed defence problems with the Prime Minister. On April 23 it was stated that Rear-Admiral Robert Ghormley, chief of the new United States-New Zealand Command, then about to be organized, would be under the orders of Rear-Admiral Chester V. Nimitz, C.-in-C. United States Pacific Fleet.

New Zealanders, at the end of June 1942, were found in every sphere where the Royal Air Force operated, and had taken part in every notable engagement.



GOVERNOR-GENERAL AT AERODROME WORKSHOPS

New Zealand's Governor-General was Marshal of the R.A.F. Sir Cyril Newall, who had been Chief of the Air Staff from September 1937 to October 1940. Here he is inspecting the workshops at a Service aerodrome in New Zealand.

Photo, Sport & General



R.N.Z.A.F. INSTRUMENT FITTERS

As in Britain, the W.A.A.F. of New Zealand filled many non-flying posts in the Air Force and released men for other duties. Two women of the instrument section are seen at work on a bomber at a New Zealand airfield.

Photo, Sport & General

16½ to 18 years of age. From the outbreak of war up to June 1942, 33,000 men applied to join the Air Force. The total number of New Zealanders in the Air Force was over 13,500.

Supported by American land forces, New Zealand could rely for Home Defence on the Navy in New Zealand waters, the Royal New Zealand Air Force, members of the New Zealand Expeditionary Force in camp, the Territorials, the National Military Reserve, and the Home Guard—a total of over 160,000 men. There were 80,000 people in Emergency Precautions Organizations distributed throughout the country. Organization followed closely on the lines of the A.R.P. in the United Kingdom.

Conscription in New Zealand applied to wealth as well as to man-power. Conscription of wealth took the form of heavy taxation for the rich—up to 17s. 6d. in the pound for the highest incomes. Wartime excess profits were taxed by 60 per cent after the other taxes had been levied. Those who did not contribute to the War Loan in 1940 according to their means were compelled to do so. This loan carried no interest for three years, and bore 2½ per cent thereafter. The Government had power to take over overseas assets held by private persons; it controlled the purposes for which capital might be used, and it might take complete control of productive resources. Conscription of men had been adopted in July 1940, even though volunteering was in full flood. New Zealand's total mobilization for defence against the Japanese was announced by the Prime Minister on March 15, when he said the War Cabinet had decided to extend the use of the country's man-power into the ranks of older men; also to enlist women for war work: the new decree extended registration to include the 46–50 age classes.

Control of industrial man-power was provided for in Regulations announced by the Prime Minister, Mr. Fraser, on January 13, 1942. All the clothing and footwear of the New Zealand soldiers, sailors, and airmen was made in New Zealand factories. Besides meeting the needs of the New Zealand Expeditionary and Home Defence Forces, 100,000 uniforms were being sent to Great Britain, large quantities to India, and thousands of blankets to Greece. Workers were bridging the gap caused by the withdrawal to the Armed Forces of 85,000 men from civil production. Over 11,000 people were directly employed making munitions and military supplies. When war broke out New Zealand industry had not been prepared for munitions production, but at the end of two years a remarkable development had taken place, and further comprehensive plans were under way to make New Zealand as self-reliant as possible in munitions. Railway workshops had been adapted for munitions production and were working in closest cooperation with private workshops as one unit under the direction of the Controller of Munitions.

The total cost in 2½ years of war was £104,000,000, compared with £23,000,000 in the first 2½ years of the war of 1914–18. This sum of £104,000,000 meant £63 for every man, woman, and child in New Zealand, or £161 for every breadwinner.

New Zealand's War Budget

The policy of the Government was to pay for the war as it went on, first by taxation and secondly by borrowing the savings of the people in New Zealand. Overseas borrowing was kept at the lowest possible level. Farmers' produce was bought by the Government, whether it could be shipped or not. Wage-earners of below £5 a week were helped by extended family allowances—4s. a week for every child. By June 1942 a range of 38 items of food, clothing, footwear, fuel, light, and public utilities had been selected for price stabilization.

New Zealand's £15,000,000 Liberty Loan opened on May 5 with interest of 2½–3 per cent. Full subscription was sought within 28 days and the loan marked the country's war indebtedness up to £33,000,000 within New Zealand, plus any additional borrowings from Britain for the needs of her forces abroad. On June 3 the Prime Minister declared the loan closed, over-subscribed by £2,131,610—the largest single sum raised as a loan in New Zealand.

A War Administration, it was stated on June 24, was being formed, consisting of seven Labour Ministers and six members of the Opposition. The life of Parliament was extended until 12 months after the duration of the war.

NEW ZEALAND'S HOME GUARD IN TRAINING

Out of the Dominion's Home Defence Force not permanently mobilized (see table in page 2201), amounting to about 138,000 men, approximately 100,000 were Home Guards. This fine show by a population of only 1,636,000 was paralleled by the number for Civil Defence services, which amounted to 95,000.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



Chapter 222

POLITICAL TRENDS IN THE NEAR AND MIDDLE EAST

Covering the period January to June 1942, this Chapter reviews political and domestic events in the regions mentioned. The author, Mr. Kenneth Williams, has travelled extensively in the Middle East and, until November 1942, was Press Officer for the Colonial and Dominions Offices. He is a Member of the Council of the Royal Central Asian Society

The year 1942 opened with the Middle East in uncertain mood. In two of its regions, Iraq and Syria, there had the previous year been warfare, with the stresses and unrest that fighting induces; in another, Persia, the people, as in the war of 1914–18, had had the British and Russian troops occupying their soil. Such developments were not taken fatalistically, in the Oriental way of "They watched the legions thunder past, then plunged in thought again." Persia was inclined to attribute to the presence of Allied armies all the evils—shortage of food, disease, and so on—which more obviously derived from inefficient administration. Iraq, too, was apt to blame the British troops for scarcity of food. Politically Syria and the Lebanon were most unsettled; they were waiting to see whether, from their point of view, the Free French under General Catroux would be better than the ejected Vichyites. Palestine Arabs, though calmer, listened to some extent to the declamations against Zionism and the British uttered from Axis territory by the Mufti of Jerusalem and such Iraqi leaders (including Rashid Ali) as had escaped from their own country. Turks watched Russian developments with a very keen and traditionally suspicious eye. And Egypt, though cooperating well enough under the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty, had a Government which was not representative of the mass of the population.

Although, therefore, the Middle Eastern year began with a general position infinitely better, from the Allied standpoint, than it had been in 1941, there was abundant room for improvement. The whole military position was still in the melting pot; the morale of the native peoples had to be kept steady; the various populations had to be fed. The world-war position was such that the Allies could not afford to permit any more fighting between the Nile Valley and Burma. That an even keel was in fact preserved was due not only to the pro-Allied elements among the Middle Eastern peoples, but also to untiring skill in Allied diplomacy, to the bearing of the Allied armies in the Middle East, and to the operation of such organizations as the United Kingdom Commercial Corporation and its subsidiary, the Middle East Supply Centre.

Anglo-Soviet-Persian Treaty

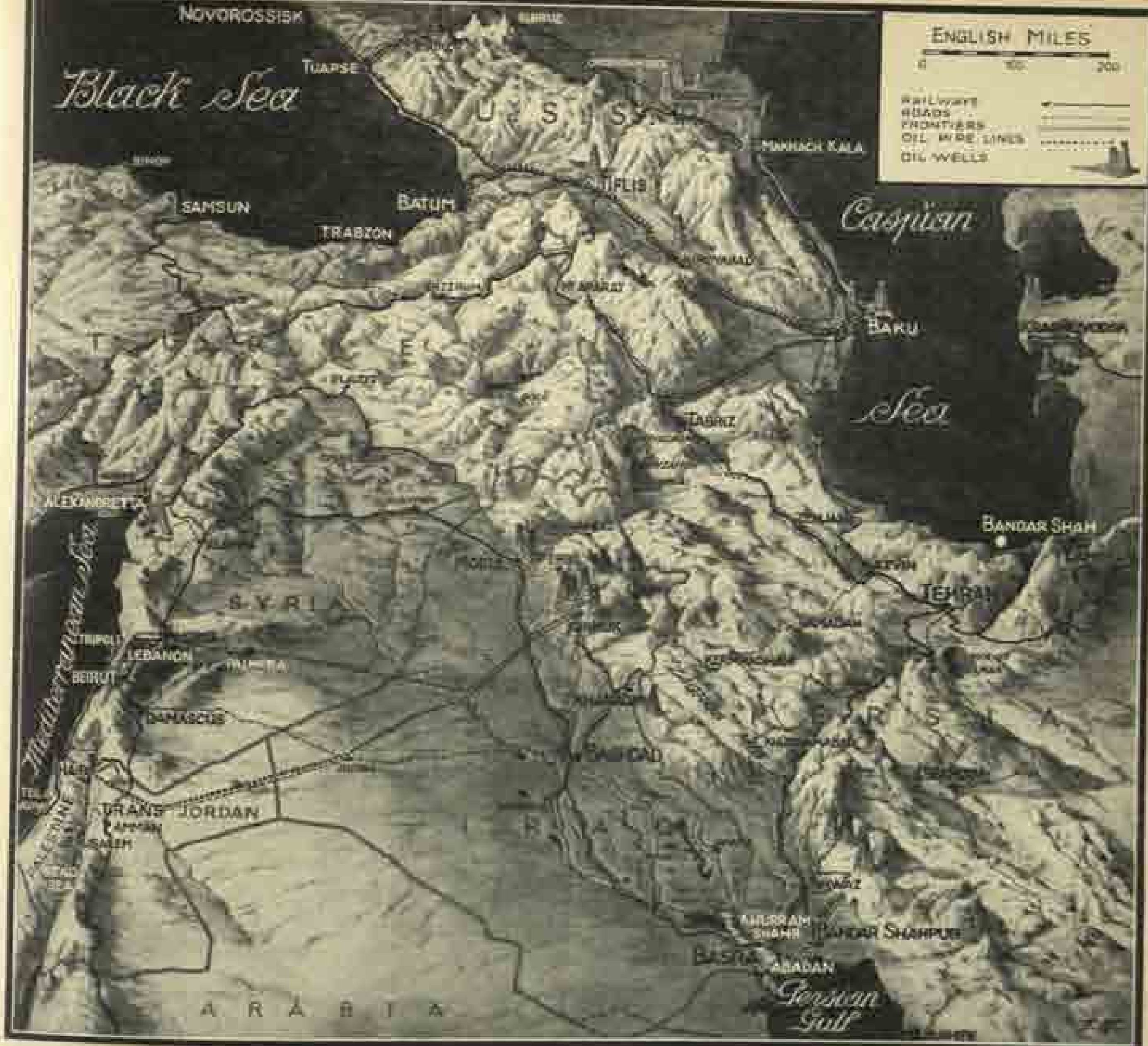
It is convenient to record the development of the Middle East during this period territorially, from east to west. In Persia, after three and a half months' negotiation, the Anglo-Soviet-Persian Treaty was signed in Teheran on January 29. (Its text is printed in page 2107.) This document made unmistakably clear the intention of the Allies to respect Persia's sovereignty and independence, but, though it was at first welcomed by the educated classes in Persia, the lower classes, short of food and attributing that shortage to the Allied "invasion," were suspicious and resentful. Then, too,

VITAL SUPPLY LINES TO RUSSIA

From the Persian Gulf to the shores of the Caspian, or to places on the Persian-Russian frontier, supplies of all kinds were transported to Russia by rail and road. Left, ingots of lead, weighing 69 lb. each, being unloaded on to the wharf at Bandar Shahpur at the head of the Gulf. Right-hand photograph shows the unpacking of lorries and engine parts near the other end of the long journey, where the vehicles are assembled and handed over to Russian drivers.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





RUSSIAN LINKS WITH TURKEY, PERSIA, SYRIA AND IRAQ

In a region destined perhaps to see some of the crucial military operations of the war against the Axis, the rail and road communications were greatly improved after Allied control had been established in Syria, Iraq and Persia (summer of 1941). Most important of these supply lines were those which enabled materials landed in the Persian Gulf to be speedily transported overland to the shores of the Caspian by way of the Trans-Iranian railway and new or improved roads.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

though the Persian Government itself was ready to act up to its obligations, the Majliss or Parliament (an indolent body dating from the time of the ex-Shah, Riza Pahlevi) took no trouble, to say the least, to expound the benefits which would accrue to the Persian people from the Treaty. However, step by step the Teheran Government went in the right direction. After a reorganization of the Government in March, by which M. Soheily displaced Feroughi as Prime Minister, relations with Japan were broken off; the Japanese Legation disappeared, via Russia, from Teheran, and other pro-Axis elements in the country were rounded up.

The Persian Government, moreover, taken by surprise—as was the British Government—by the sudden arrival in April of thousands of Polish refugees accompanying Polish troops from Russia, acted most helpfully, giving these refugees accommodation and medical aid. It may be that Persians listened to tales of Russia which confirmed their own historic attitude towards their northern neighbour: in any case there were perceptible at this time two bodies of thought on the Anglo-Soviet-Persian Treaty—one stipulating that Persia depended for her sovereignty on Anglo-Russian rivalry; the other basing its hope for the future on the Atlantic Charter and professing that Russia would not have a free hand in Europe after the war. The fact that American support for this Treaty was promptly forthcoming had a reassuring effect. Another tonic in the right direction was provided by the visit to Teheran of the Duke of Gloucester, who went thither from Iraq. This royal visit was a tremendous success: officials and populace were delighted, and the young Shah

showed his pleasure by driving H.R.H. back to Teheran, after a tour into the countryside, in his own racing car.

The most visible development in Persia concerned the opening up or the improvement of supply routes through it to Russia. Of these routes the most important was the north to south railway, a fine feat of engineering upon the completion of which the ex-Shah had successfully set his heart. But what was adequate for Persian needs in pre-war days—a single-line track and a passenger speed of twenty miles an hour —was far from meeting the needs of the war situation. British, American and Russian engineers, employing Persian labour, at once got to work. Rolling-stock which, seeing that the gauge of the railway was standard, could therefore be provided neither from Russia nor India, was greatly increased from countries such as Great Britain and Australia; new sidings were built; better facilities at ports at either end of the railway were arranged.

Vital Routes to Russia

For instance, the southern port of Bandar Shahpur was improved, but there were limitations to such improvement. So goods were shipped up the Karun river, which runs into the Shatt-al-Arab at Khorramshahr (whence a new railway was built to Ahwaz) to Ahwaz, a town on the main railway. But this did not suffice. The port of Bushire, the water of which is so shallow that goods have to be unloaded by lighters five miles off-shore, was used. Cargo was taken from Bushire by lorries across the Zagros mountains and thence to Teheran. This trek took five days, and the U.K.C.C. soon put on a fleet of 250 lorries for the route. Another port, Bandar Abbas, whence the road to Teheran goes via Kerman, was extensively utilized.

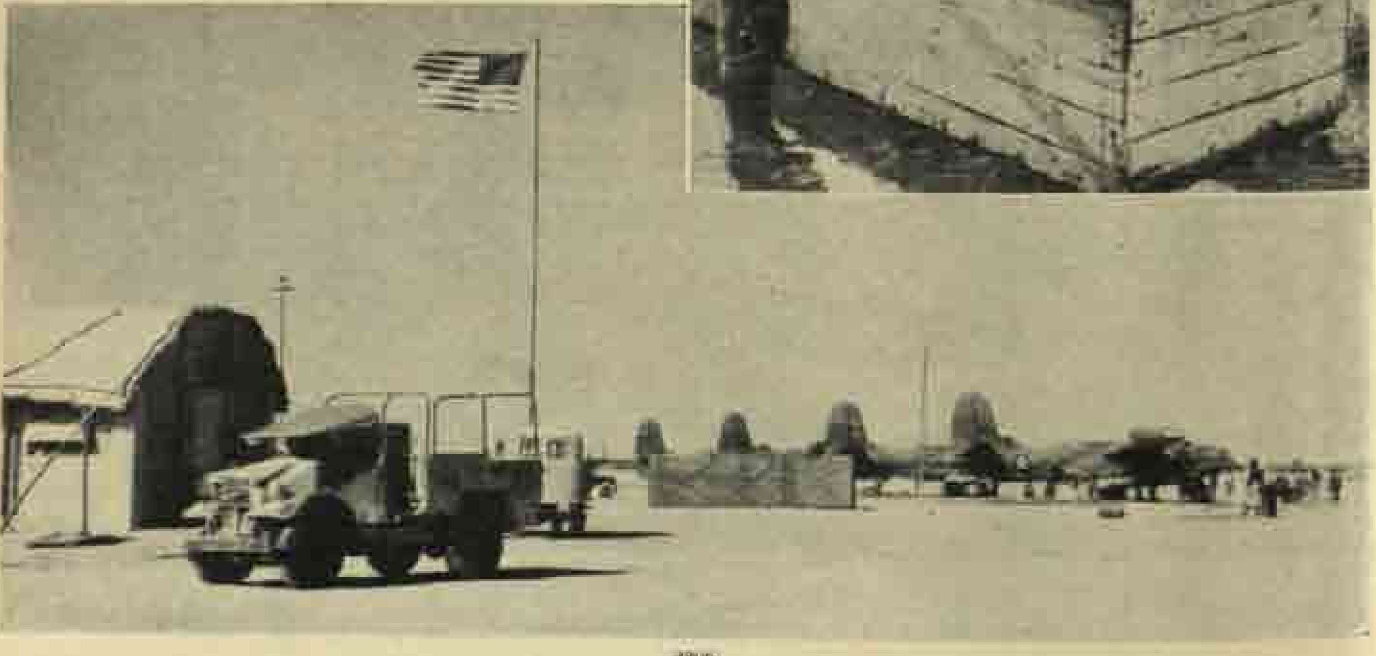
Nor was the existing situation at Bandar Shah, the other terminal of the railway on the Caspian, at all adequate. There the sea had receded since the railway was originally built, with the result that Russian engineers had to make a mile-long jetty. There was also a lack of steamer services to Baku, across the Caspian. A partial way out of this difficulty was found by joining the Trans-Persian railway to Tabriz, which itself had rail connexion with Baku. This link had before the war been partly completed, as far as Kazvin; it was extended now through Zenjan to Tabriz.

One of the most interesting transport developments did not concern goods brought to Persia by sea. During the war of 1914–18 a railway had been built from Indian Baluchistan to the border of Persia, at Duzdab (now called Zahidan). The Persians did not like this intrusion into their territory, and after that war the line was left derelict and was even torn up in places. Early in 1942 it was reconditioned, and a route through wild country, opened up by 5,000 Indian labourers, was made for lorries to Meshed and then to Firuze on the Russian frontier.

For yet another route to Russia, the services of the Iraq railways were called upon. Supplies landed at the head of the Persian Gulf went by rail to Baghdad, and thence to Kirkuk and to Khaniqin by the Persian frontier. From Khaniqin they were taken 600 miles to Tabriz in lorries, again provided by the U.K.C.C., collaborating with a Russian organization of a similar nature. One last alternative route went from Arbil, in northern Iraq, via the famous Rowandue gorge to Tabriz.

In general the situation in Persia, while no longer positively dangerous, as it might have been in 1941, could not be said to be satisfactory in the first half of 1942. Despite the excellent behaviour of both British and Russian troops the people did not like the garrisoning which the Allies obtained through the Treaty. The right to use Persian communications





RELAY AIRFIELD IN THE MIDDLE EAST

At the assembly plant in the Middle East seen below British and American aircraft were uncrated, assembled, and flown to Russian and other battle-fronts; a line of American-built bombers in background. Right, spare parts for Boeing bombers in service in Russia are guarded by a Soviet sentry. The crates bear the stencil, "British Ministry of War Transport, New York."

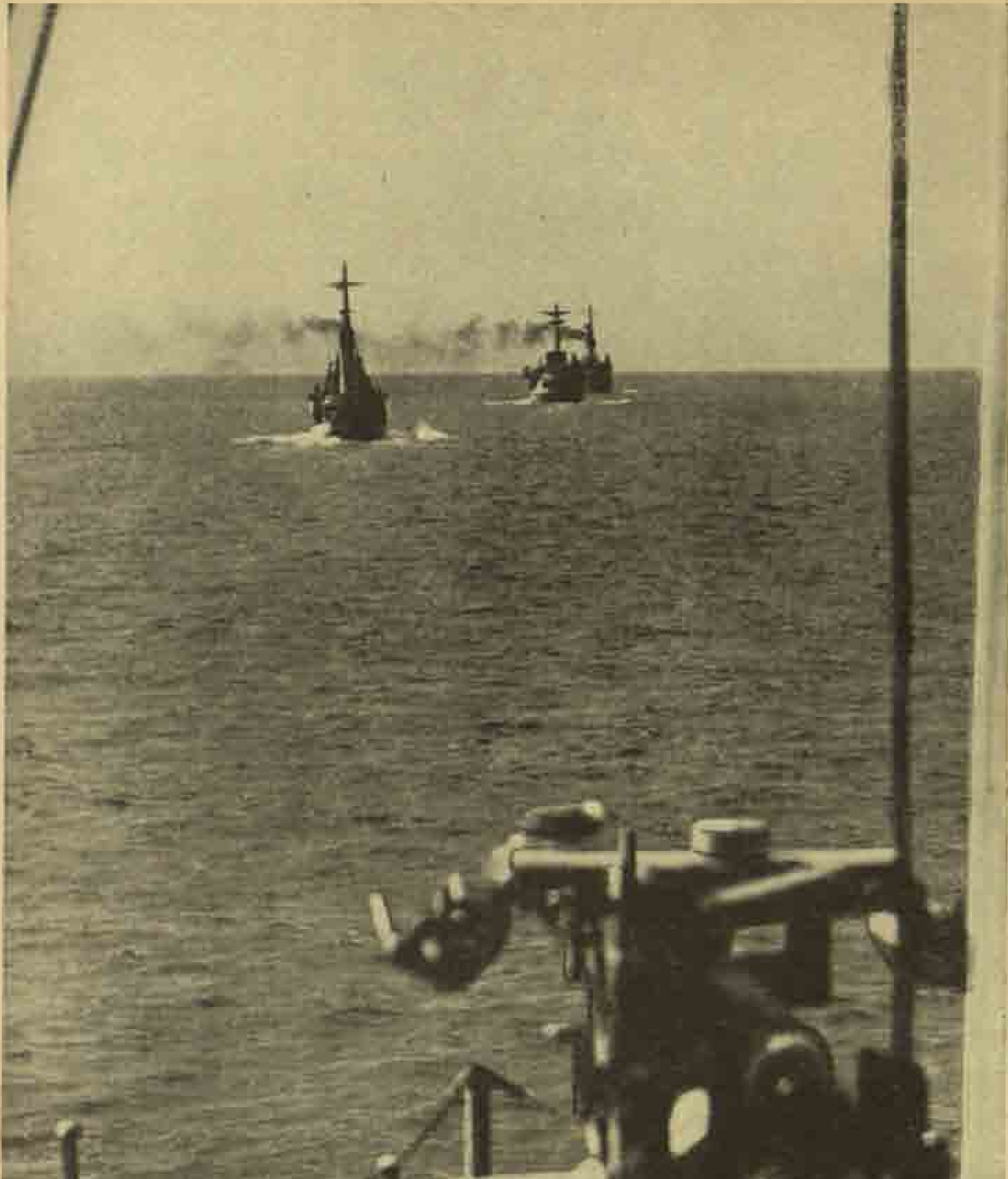
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press



SERGEANT QUENTIN SMYTHE, SOUTH AFRICA'S FIRST V.C.

He is seen raised aloft by his comrades of the Royal Natal Carabineers just after Maj.-Gen. Dan Pienaar (G.O.C. 1st S.A. Division) had pinned the V.C. ribbon on his tunic. In an attack at Alem Hamza on June 5, 1942, his officer was severely wounded and Smythe, though suffering himself from a wound in the forehead, took command. He stalked and destroyed an enemy machine-gun nest; then he dealt with an anti-tank position singlehanded; finally he executed a successful withdrawal.

Photo, Sport & General



MINESWEEPERS OF THE ROYAL NEW ZEALAND NAVY AT WORK

The distinction of the name Royal New Zealand Navy was accorded to the Dominion's sea forces in September 1941. Besides the 4,000 New Zealanders in its service and nearly as many recruits awaiting entry, about 1,000 were serving in the Royal Navy in other spheres of war. In 1942 some were commanding minesweepers at work in the English Channel, while 400 served in the Fleet Air Arm. (See also illus., p. 2202.)

Photo, Sport & General



SCOTS GUARDS GO INTO ACTION AT EL ALAMEIN

Under cover of a smoke screen and protected by tanks, men of the Scots Guards move forward. All around is the dense cloud of dust set up by the armoured fighting vehicles. By the end of the first week in July 1942 Rommel's advance had been halted, and a few days later he was forced back on to the defensive. On July 10 General Auchinleck began to recover ground, advancing five miles to Tel el Eisa.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



INFANTRY AND ANTI-TANK GUNNERS IN THE KNIGHTSBRIDGE FIGHTING

Much of the Eighth Army's success in the Libyan battle was attributable to the accurate fire of the artillery. Gunners were in action night and day. Below, the crew of a 6-pounder anti-tank gun (mounted on a Chevrolet truck) move up after knocking out a German tank, seen at the left. Top, while a Bren gunner gives covering fire his comrade gets busy with the entrenching tool. Dropped from the infantryman's equipment in the early days of the war, this useful implement was later reinstated.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



for the all-important task of supplying Russia tended in the nature of things to make Persians consider that their own interests were being subordinated to the war situation. There were, too, difficulties in the matter of currency, which the Persians were apt to withhold. But the position, while still needing the utmost tact and circumspection, was not unmanageable, and though first things had to come first, the essential needs of the Persians were always borne in mind by the Allies.

In Iraq, the decisiveness of the defeat in 1941 of Rashid Ali and his followers had given the chance, quickly taken, for pro-Allied elements of the Iraqi population to come forward. On January 7, 1942, the formal step was taken of sentencing to death Rashid Ali—*in absentia*—and of passing other sentences on his associates. Early in the year General Nuri al Said, the Arab soldier-statesman with whom T. E. Lawrence had fought in the last war, and a firm friend of the ruling Hashimite dynasty in Baghdad, showed signs of wanting to declare war on the Axis—a desire which was fulfilled in due course.

Rashid Ali Sentenced

Both Arabs and the Allies lost a good friend when Mr. Paul Knabenshue died in February in Baghdad. He was American minister to Iraq, and before that had been American Consul-General in Syria and Palestine. At the critical time of Rashid Ali's revolt his help had been invaluable to the forces of legal authority, and it may justly be said that the U.S.A. had never sent a better representative to the Middle East.

General Nuri energetically set about his task of purging his country of pro-Axis elements, men who had become so minded owing to the lavish propaganda and bribery practised by the Axis. Fearlessly and continuously he carried out the purge, and showed particular courage in tackling the Iraqi Army. His success was complete; indeed, it was never in doubt. Slowly but surely he and his friends, including notably the British authorities, made of his country the ally foreseen in the Anglo-Iraqi Treaty of 1930.

Three factors chiefly worried the Iraqi leaders in the first half of 1942. They concerned, first, the susceptibilities of all Arabs about the danger of Zionism in Palestine; secondly, the fact that there were only "caretaker" governments in Syria and the Lebanon; and thirdly, the provisioning of Iraq itself. Under the first two heads satisfaction was not forthcoming, and on the third it was explained that all consignments to Iraq were controlled by the Middle East Supply Centre. But a better feeling was created when it was made known, in early May, that Lend-Lease facilities had been approved for both Iraq and Iran. In May, too, the Duke of Gloucester visited Baghdad and was warmly received. By this time the Iraqi Government were carrying out their Treaty obligations to the letter, and even the hitherto disgruntled Iraqi Army manifested no resentment when, in May, the rebel leaders were tried and executed. The situation had, indeed, been radically transformed.



ROYAL DUKE VISITS THE SHAH

In May 1942 H.R.H. the Duke of Gloucester made an extensive tour of the Middle East. He is seen here (right) with the Shah in the grounds of the Summer Palace at Teheran. He went on later to Palestine, and from there to Syria and the Lebanon, and also paid a memorable visit to Cyprus.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Turkish statesmen kept their country on a level keel in the period under review, despite the difficulties of maintaining neutrality when all around them were engaged in war; despite also the problem presented by certain Kurdish movements in Persian Azerbaijan, and by a bomb outrage in Ankara (an attempt on the life of the German Ambassador, Von Papen) on February 24. In the north-west corner of Persia at the beginning of the year there was much lawlessness among the Kurds, who, egged on by Russia according to the Turkish belief, were making a dead set at Turki-speaking persons, leaving Christians alone. On the question of privileges for the Kurds, one that had greatly troubled the Turks, Ankara had always been extremely sensitive. Gradually, however, the Persian Government got the situation under control, and Turkish fears abated.

Turkey Remained Calm

But the Kurdish trouble had no such electric effect as had the Von Papen bomb plot. The Court inquiry that followed (March 6-10) and the sentencing of two Russians on June 17 roused the Soviet press to indignation. The Russian-Turkish barometer, which previous to the plot had been rising, sank abruptly. The Turks recalled their Ambassador from Russia "for



EMIR ABDUL ILAH OPENS IRAQI PARLIAMENT

In his speech from the Throne on November 1, 1942, the Regent (centre) said that the cause of the United Nations was the cause of the Arab nations. He expressed confidence in the fulfilment of Britain's promise of eventual independence for the Arab countries.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



RAILWAY TO LINK PALESTINE WITH TURKEY

Running from Haifa in Palestine to Tripoli in Syria, this railway was built by British, South African and Australian engineers. It was constructed in record time, and opened at the end of 1942 (see map, p. 2203). This photograph shows South Africans excavating the cutting at the mouth of the mile-long Chekka tunnel, one of the most difficult sections of the line.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

reasons of health." But the Soviets, seeing with what delight the Germans hailed this development, moderated their attacks, and after a time the situation, which neither side allowed to deteriorate, was eased. The Turkish Government sent one of their best men to represent them in Russia.

It was after this that Turkey could describe herself as still the ally of Great Britain and the good neighbour of Russia. Axis blandishments continued unceasingly. The chief aim of the Nazis was to embitter relations between Ankara and Moscow. Every event was twisted to reinforce the thesis that Russia wanted control of the Black Sea Straits, and Britain was alleged to have recognized Soviet hegemony in Europe. The Nazis further spread rumours that a new Turkish Government, more friendly to the Axis, was about to take office. They said that Russia would be defeated in 1942 and that Britain, which only wanted to see Russia bleed to death, would make a compromise peace with Germany. With Bulgaria as the centre, the Nazis opened a "war of nerves" on Turkey.

Nazi's 'War of Nerves'

But the Turks remained absolutely faithful to their agreement with Great Britain. What Berlin mainly wanted from Turkey was chrome, and it was agreed to supply 90,000 tons of this precious mineral in 1943 and 1944—on condition that by the end of 1942 Germany had delivered to Turkey war material to the value of £T18,000,000, that Turkish chrome deliveries during those two years were compensated by equivalent German deliveries of war material, and all this only after the expiry of the Anglo-Turkish agreement. So staunch an attitude towards her ally was fully reciprocated by Britain, who uninterruptedly delivered to Turkey war materials of every kind: tanks, aircraft, submarines and destroyers, rolling stock, foodstuffs and manufactured goods. This deeply impressed the Turks, who argued that, hard pressed as Britain was, only a true friend could have done such a thing. Ordinary trade with Turkey, moreover, despite the difficulties in transport, showed constant progress in 1942.

A word should be said, in recording the satisfactory nature of Anglo-Turkish relations during this period, of the admirable work of the British Council in Turkey, which pursued with unflagging zeal its cultural and educational ends. Its efforts were greatly appreciated in Turkey.

As the only neutral at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Turkey played an international role with distinction. In nothing was this better seen than in the help she gave to the repatriation of British and Italian prisoners, the first exchange of whom was effected at Smyrna (Izmir) on April 8. On this occasion the Turks set a precedent of kindness and thoughtfulness to which they adhered faithfully.

In Syria and the Lebanon it became patent early in the year that Free French control was by no means to the liking of the mass of the people. General Catroux had installed as President of the Syrian State Sheikh Taj-ad-din—a politician who commanded little popular support and who was, in particular, disliked by the strong Nationalist *bloc*—and as President of the Lebanon Mr. Naqqash. In February Brig.-Gen. E. L. Spears arrived as British Minister to the Lebanon and Syrian Republics, and also as Head of the Mission to the Free French. He conveyed Mr. Eden's message that, though the Mandate was still in force, it was the wish of H.M. Government that this regime should be ended at the earliest possible moment.

Syria and the Lebanon

Hopes that arose from this statement diminished quickly, particularly as it coincided with a deterioration in the food situation. The Syrians could not forget that in the last war the years 1916–18 were famine years when more than 300,000 of their people died of starvation. When General Spears presented his credentials in April at Beirut and Damascus he was greeted warmly enough, but disappointment was manifested owing to the fact that the British had left the Free French (in some ways more disliked by the Syrians than had been the Vichy regime) in supreme control. Yet the belief persisted that somehow Britain would solve the

FOODSTUFFS FOR SYRIANS

New Zealanders measure out rations of flour—sent by the Red Cross organization of the United States. The food situation had been made more difficult by the practice of hoarding, which in turn sprang from fears of a famine such as that which had killed more than 300,000 Syrians in the later years of the war of 1914–18.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright











AIR DEFENCE OF CAIRO AND ALEXANDRIA

Britain contributed large sums for the protection of Egypt from Axis bombers—including £1,000,000 for the defence of Cairo. A.R.P. services were well organized, while active defence by night fighters and anti-aircraft batteries was highly efficient. (1) A Ju 88 caught by gunfire over the Nile delta plunges to its doom (its flaming trail at right); in centre are streaks made by A.A. shells, while the sky is dotted with shell bursts. In (3) an Egyptian policeman and field workers examine another German bomber, shot down by the R.A.F. near Kantara on the night of September 9–10, 1942. (2) A.R.P. practice in Cairo: an incident officer at work. (4) After an air raid at Alexandria.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press

problems of the Levant States, despite the fact that Taj-ad-din and Naqqash were regarded merely as French puppets.

The general attitude of the French was that they must postpone decisions in the Levant States for fear of unfavourable repercussions in metropolitan France which might diminish the prestige of their movement in France itself. Yet the native belief in Britain was justified to the extent that the British were able to persuade Catroux that the danger of holding elections in wartime was negligible. But the Syrians saw everywhere ex-Vichy officials exercising power. No wonder, therefore, that they thought that "presbyter is but old priest writ large."

Distrust of French Officials

British prestige fluctuated. It increased notably with the visit to Beirut and Damascus of the Duke of Gloucester in June, but it slumped towards the end of the period under review with the fall of Tobruk. Even in the largely Maronite Republic of the Lebanon, the boundaries of which had been extended by the French to include Moslem territory, there was a feeling that matters were taking a bad turn, especially as the food situation there (as in Syria), aggravated by the age-old habit of hoarding, was very unsatisfactory.

On the material side there was one wholly beneficial development. This was the building, in record time, of the railway joining Haifa in Palestine to Tripoli in Syria, the northern terminal of the Iraq oil pipe line. No fewer than 8,000 civilian labourers were employed on the construction, which, since it was attended by great technical difficulties (for instance, tunnelling in the northern section), was entrusted to South African engineers, who brought over 1,000 miners from the Union's diamond mines for the purpose. (As soon as the line was completed, it was opened by General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander, C.-in-C. Middle East, towards the end of the year.)

Palestine, whatever the conditions of the war, was dominated by the underlying differences between native Arab and immigrant Zionist. The presence of many troops in Palestine, together with the fact that fundamentally Arabs and Jews were on the Allied side, to some extent obscured the sharpness of this controversy, but no observer could fail to note that it had rather gone underground than disappeared. If the Arabs, partly through force of circumstances, said little publicly in support of their claims the Zionists were by no means unvocal.

There was during the period no spectacular recruiting for the Army of the Mandatory Power in Palestine. At the end of 1941 the figures stood at a little over 14,000, of whom some 10,000 were Jews. On July 1, 1942, the figures were 20,374, of whom the Jewish community had provided 12,686 men and 1,169 women. The Zionists wanted conditions of enlistment which the British authorities could not accept; and the Arabs seemingly were content to provide help with civilian labour for the manifold works required by military authorities.

On January 3 there occurred the death of a Jew who will long be remembered in Palestine. This was Pinhas Rutenberg, who had supplied the whole of Palestine (with the exception of Jerusalem and its neighbourhood) with electricity. He had earned the reputation of being fair to both Arab and Jew: "The Times" said of him that he was "more a Jew than a Zionist."

During the first half of 1942 tragic incidents took place which moved both Zionists and non-Zionists. On January 20 there was an outrage against the police at Tel Aviv. Those held responsible were a body known as the "Stern Group," a terrorist gang of Jews said to be in touch with Fascist bodies in Europe. The crime was denounced by responsible Zionist leaders, among whom it created consternation. The Zionists, too, were much distressed by the disaster to the refugee steamer "Struma." This boat, carrying Jewish refugees from Europe, foundered in the Black Sea in March, and the Zionists, anxious to get into Palestine the maximum number of Jewish refugees, accused the Palestine Government of "murder," alleging that the authorities had treated the demand for extra immigrants with undue deliberation.

On the whole Palestine showed a fair picture during the first half of 1942, despite a steep rise in the cost of living. It was claimed that by the spring of that year the Holy Land was growing all the wheat, potatoes, and vegetables it needed. The Government took control and gave a stimulating lead. The country's electrical works were supplying industrial power, the potash industry of the Dead Sea was providing important war materials, and the cement industry was supplying airfields, roads, and fortifications throughout the Middle East. Owing, moreover, to the presence in Palestine of numbers of highly skilled workmen, delicate work could be done there. It was boasted, indeed, that Palestine was the only country between London and Calcutta (except Cape Town) where the British forces could get a precision instrument made or repaired. The projection north of Haifa of the railway to Tripoli was bound to affect beneficially Palestine, Syria, and Turkey.

Prosperity in Palestine

Over Egypt, surprising as the statement may seem, it cannot be said that



STRENGTHENING FRIENDSHIP WITH SAUDI ARABIA

Early in 1942 the Emir Mansour, son of King Ibn Saud, visited Egypt as the guest of General Sir Claude Auchinleck. Some of the party in the grounds of the British Embassy at Cairo; left to right, front—Sir Miles Lampson, British Ambassador; the Emir Mansour; Admiral Sir Andrew Cunningham; General Auchinleck. At rear, Sir Walter Monckton, Acting Minister of State, Middle East; Air Marshal Sir William Tedder (behind the Emir).
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

the shadow of war hung ominously as from the beginning of 1942. Certain steps, indeed, were taken to regularize her position as an ally. On January 6, for example, she formally severed her relations with Vichy, Finland, and Bulgaria; but Italian influence at the Court was allowed to remain. In the following month the Cabinet of Sirry Pasha fell. It was succeeded by that of Nahas Pasha, leader of the great Wafd party, who gained, on March 26, an overwhelming majority in the elections. He had a series of difficult passages with the Palace, and finally took the step of arresting a former Prime Minister, Ali Maher Pasha (April 8), and of keeping him confined.

The real preoccupations of Egyptians were with domestic politics and domestic economics. Certainly the problem of food supplies—what with the aggravating tendency of native merchants to hoard and impose fantastic prices, together with "black market" operations—was grave. But to the average Egyptian the war seemed remote and, until the fall of Tobruk and the Axis approach to the Nile Valley, never came uppermost in his thoughts. Meanwhile, the Government tried to do what it could to alleviate the stringency set up by war conditions—a task to which Mr. R. G. Casey set himself at once after he had succeeded Mr. Oliver Lyttelton as Minister of State in May.

Egypt's Domestic Preoccupations

Egypt, more particularly since the accession of Nahas Pasha to power, was loyal to her obligations under the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936. Under that agreement the Egyptian Army was not required to fight in the event of an emergency, but the Egyptian Government was to give Britain the facilities she required for military purposes. The outbreak of war had found in power one of the numerous Cabinets which did not reflect the wishes of the mass of the people. The manoeuvres of such parties as the Liberal Constitutionals, the Watanists, the Shaab, and the Saadists—none of them comparable in strength with the Wafd and nearly all of them centring round persons rather than principles—were of little interest to the outside world except as they affected Egypt's attitude towards the war.

There was indeed no fundamental point of difference between Egypt and Britain. The extreme Nationalists (Watanists) were not content with the clauses about the Sudan in the Treaty. Nor, for that matter, were other parties, but all agreed not to make the Sudan a war issue. Theoretically, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan is a Condominium, though in practice it is, if not British, at least Sudanese in colour. But Egyptians, naturally interested in the whole Nile question, have been prone to treat the matter as if it were one between the British and themselves exclusively.



TURKEY SPEEDS UP AIR FORCE TRAINING

During the Eighth Congress of the Turkish Air League at Ankara, in June 1942, the first training aircraft entirely of Turkish manufacture was flown on test (above). It was a Miles Magister, of British design. Below, cadets of the Turkish Air Force receive training at an R.A.F. station in Britain: instruction on the Browning gun.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Planet News



A word ought to be said on the consistently pro-British attitude of Trans-Jordan, whose ruler, the Amir Abdullah, set his subjects an unswerving lead in loyalty. The only event of note in the first half of 1942 was the successful visit to Amman, in February, of the Amir Fawwaz as Shalaan, Sheikh of the Ruwalla, the large Syrian tribe. He was a grandson of the great comrade-in-arms of T. E. Lawrence in 1918.

To sum up the picture of the Middle East in the first half of 1942, it may be said that its comparative brightness was due largely to none other than Hitler himself! What did the Middle East offer to Hitler? It possessed three advantages: It was one way to India, a most valuable way if the alleged Japanese pincer threat developed. Secondly, it opened up a route to a vulnerable Russian flank. Thirdly, if the Nazis had obtained Middle East oil, their war effort could have been kept afloat almost indefinitely.

By keeping his concentrated strength for Russia Hitler virtually abandoned all the potential quisling elements in the Middle East. The Allies reaped where Hitler had promised (but failed) to harvest. He set up a propaganda centre in Athens, composed of certain disgruntled Arabs exiled from their homes, and fulminated against the Russian giant and against British Imperialism. But he had missed an opportunity which can hardly return. Yet it has to be admitted that early in 1942 the future of the military situation could not be foretold, and the conduct of the native peoples and of the Allies who were trying then to help them has to be read in the light of that uncertainty.

Chapter 223

DOMESTIC POLITICS IN INDIA DURING 1942

Prefaced by an outline of constitutional changes and an analysis of party politics up to the entry of Japan into the war in December 1941, this Chapter then describes Sir Stafford Cripps' unsuccessful attempt to arrive at a settlement with the Indian leaders. It goes on to discuss India's fine war effort and the effect on the general war situation

For India the interval between the termination of the war of 1914–18 and the beginning of the Second Great War in September 1939 had been marked by important political changes and by the advance in British India to full responsible self-government, as foreshadowed in the Declaration of August 20, 1917.

Arising from that Declaration, framed by Austen Chamberlain and Lord Curzon but—owing to Chamberlain's resignation from the India Office in 1917 after a Royal Commission in its report had censured the Indian Government over the Mesopotamian blunders—actually made in the House of Commons by Edwin Montagu as Secretary for India, a semi-parliamentary system was introduced into India by the Act of 1919. In the Provinces Legislatures comprising elected Indian majorities were created in the place of Legislative Councils which, from 1861 onwards, had had a slowly increasing Indian element but were in effect purely advisory bodies. The stages of development in 1892 and 1909 had brought them to the point at which the only possible step forward was by setting up representative institutions on parliamentary lines. This recalled Macaulay's famous assertion in 1833 that such a change would connote the "proudest day in English history," and, also, ironically enough, John Morley's blunt repudiation of the idea that the reforms which he sponsored in 1909 had parliamentarianism as their objective.

The system which came into force in 1921 under the Act of 1919 divided the provincial administration into two categories. Departments constituting the framework of government—law and order, finance, judiciary—were retained under executive control. Departments which came to be known as "nation-building," such as education, public works, public health, were transferred to the control of Ministers elected from and responsible to the new Legislatures. By this dyarchical method [dyarchy means government by two rulers] it was hoped at the end of ten years, when a Royal Commission would report to Parliament, to judge the possibility of a fuller advance.

At the centre, two houses of a Central Legislature were created also, with elected Indian majorities over the official blocs. No principle of responsibility could there be imported, since the Government of India (Viceroy's Executive Council) remained still responsible to the Parliament at Westminster, and in fact was concerned not only with British India (886,000 square miles and [1941] 295,827,000 people), but also with the 562 Indian States (690,000 square miles and [1941] 92,973,000 people).

On November 1, 1929, just before Sir John Simon's Commission was ready to report on the working of the semi-parliamentary system, the Viceroy (Lord Irwin) was authorized to declare that the goal of British policy, as set out in the Declaration of 1917, was "Dominion status." By that time India had already acquired certain attributes of that status. Since 1919 she had been a Member of the Imperial Conference as well as a founder member of the League of Nations. By a convention established in 1921 she had tariff autonomy.

As the result of the Simon Commission's Report (the first volume of which stands today as the best brief factual appreciation of the Indian problem) three Round Table Conferences of representative Englishmen and Indians were held in London, and then a Joint Select Committee of the two Houses of Parliament considered the material thus available for framing the next measure of Indian constitutional reform.

This was born in the Act of 1935, which separated Burma from India and, by forming two new provinces of Orissa and Sind, established 11 provinces in British India to which full responsible self-government on the basis of an electorate of 30 millions (43 per cent of the male and 10 per cent of the female adult population) was accorded. For the first time provision was made for formally linking up British with "Indian" India. Recognizing that this federation would require time for arrangement, the Act prescribed that full self-government in the British Indian provinces should come into force on April 1, 1937. Meanwhile, inquiry was at once to be started to ascertain the terms on which the Indian States—most of which had treaties or other contractual engagements with the Crown—would agree to enter into federation. Their chief spokesmen had already expressed concurrence with the

Separation of Burma

CALCUTTA WELCOMES CHINESE TROOPS FROM BURMA

When the Chinese troops reached Calcutta at the end of their long journey from Shwebo, N.W. of Mandalay, they received a great welcome from the Chinese community of Calcutta, who turned out with their band and lined the approach to the railway station. Other Chinese forces had fought their way back to China from Burma. (See Chapter 206.)

Photo, Pictorial Press





SIR STAFFORD CRIPPS WITH INDIAN LEADERS

During the fateful days of his mission to India in March and April, 1942, Sir Stafford Cripps met representatives of all parties. Above he is seen (second from left) with Sikh leaders: left to right, Sardar Baldev Singh, Member Legislative Assembly; Master Tara Singh; Sir Jogendra Singh; S. B. Sardar Ujjal Singh, M.L.A. and Parliamentary Secretary. Below, with Gandhi on the steps of Birla House, Delhi.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Topical Press



general principle. The scheme for federation being thus delayed, it was decided that, until it had been established, the government at the centre should remain as under the Constitution which in other respects the Act replaced. The separation of Burma and the creation of the two new provinces already mentioned also came into force on April 1, 1937.

The political leaders of British India showed clearly that they were not enamoured of the proposals for associating the two Indias in a central government. They maintained that democratic principles were affronted by a scheme which gave the Rulers the right to nominate the representatives of the States to the proposed federal legislature, where the representatives of British India would be chosen by the democratically elected members of the Provincial Legislatures. The negotiations for ascertaining the Rulers' views on the terms of their accession to federation were taken in hand, and just before the outbreak of the Second Great War they were reported to have been completed. As by that time the Rulers themselves were a little alarmed at the hostility to their order shown by political leaders in British India, there seemed to be no immediate prospect of coming to a satisfactory solution.

The political sky in British India was by no means unclouded. In the elections of April 1937 the Congress Party had secured sufficient support at the polls to give it the right to form Ministries in eight out of the 11 Provinces. Despite its predominantly Hindu complexion the party had, in fact, secured more Muslim adherents than would normally have been expected. Even then, of the 546 Muslim seats only 25 went to Congress Party Muslim candidates, but the comparative weakness of the Muslim League was shown by its inability to secure more than 108 Muslim seats—albeit that figure was four times the Congress Party Muslim captures. The important Shia community of Muslims (numbering about 20 million) had given the Congress Party support. When the Ministries took office they speedily weakened this Muslim sympathy. In particular the Shias took offence at measures emanating from the Ministries, and many of that community actually went to prison as the result of its defiance of Congress Ministries' administration. This brought a great accession of strength to the Muslim League, which, under the leadership of Mr. M. A. Jinnah (himself a Shia, and 20 years earlier a close associate of Mr. Gandhi), proceeded to assert itself as the chief exponent of the aspirations of Muslims. In by-elections for Muslim constituencies after 1937 the Muslim League showed this new-found strength by capturing 46 out of 56 seats, as against three Congress and seven "Independent" successes. Moreover, in the three non-Congress Provinces where coalition Ministries under Muslim premiers were able to take office in April 1937 the Muslim League increased its influence. Those provinces were Bengal, Punjab and Sind.

Congress Secures Majority

In the summer of 1939, when the war clouds were gathering, the Government of India decided to send Indian troops to reinforce the garrisons in Egypt and Malaya. This action required no sanction from the Central Legislature, though as a matter of courtesy the Viceroy privately advised the members of this intention. The Congress Party, although it had consistently criticized British policy in China (over Manchuria), Spain, Abyssinia and Czechoslovakia from the anti-Axis standpoint, refused to concur in this decision to send troops—on the ground that the Government was not responsible to the Indian Legislature. The Party maintained this attitude (which had been expressed in withdrawal from the two Houses of the Legislature) when, on September 3, 1939, Great Britain's Declaration of War automatically put India at war with Germany. The Muslim League took the line of siding with the Congress Party's objection to the constitutional disability arising from India's lack of Dominion status. In other respects the League was against the Congress, and, indeed, demanded that no fundamental constitutional changes should be made during the war, to the conduct of which it offered no obstruction.

Gathering War Clouds

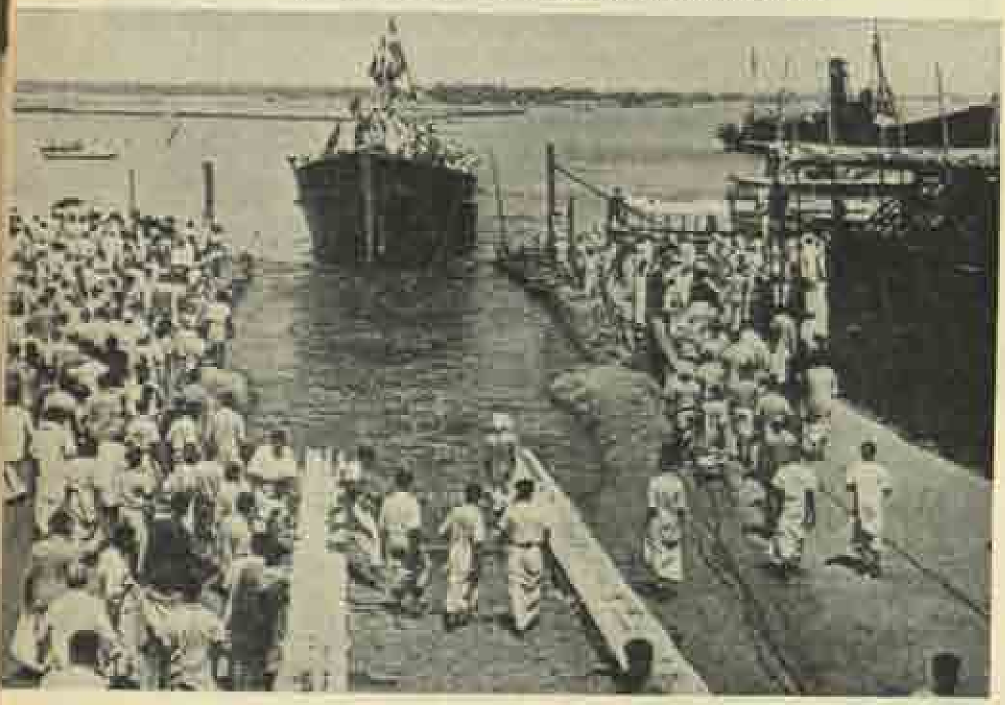
The Viceroy endeavoured by personal conversations with all leaders—he saw 53 of them in the month of September—



PHASES OF INDIA'S GREAT WAR EFFORT

Owing to her geographical situation India was especially important as a source of munition supply to Allied armies in Persia, Iraq and Syria; she also rendered vital assistance to Russia and to China. Top, a shift leaving an Indian steelworks. Below, a new minelayer for the Royal Indian Navy is launched by Prince Rama Varma, ruler of Cochin.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; March of Time



to overcome this deadlock, but without avail. In November 1939 the central executive of the Congress Party, which had all along developed a caucus-like control of the provincial Ministries of its own complexion, ordered the Ministers in the eight "Congress" provinces to resign en masse. This those Ministries reluctantly did, without any pretence of consultation with the Legislatures to which they were nominally responsible.

The Provinces had no concern with defence or foreign affairs, so the resignations were in a sense irrelevant. In Assam, one of the eight provinces, an alternative Ministry was formed. In the remaining seven, emergency government under the Act was established by the respective Governors. Assam's alternative Ministry later went out, to be replaced by an emergency administration, but in 1942 Ministerial government was resumed in that province and also in Orissa. This gave five provinces (Assam, Bengal, Orissa, Punjab and Sind), totalling 110,000,000 people, in which full responsible self-government under the Constitution was maintained; and six (Bihar, Bombay, Central Provinces, Madras, North-West Frontier Province, United Provinces) where the Governors were governing not by and with the advice of Ministers, but under the emergency provisions of the Constitution.

The Government of India made constant efforts to end the deadlock. To the Viceroy's assurances that Dominion status remained the goal of British policy for India, reiterated in October 1939 and January 1940, there was added in August 1940 a formal announcement that a War Advisory Council would be set up and would include representative Indians; that the views of minorities would be given full weight in any constitutional scheme framed; and that such a scheme should be devised by Indians themselves. To this end the Government would assent to the creation, after the war, of a body representative of the principal elements in Indian life.

In July 1941, since the recalcitrant political leaders had not been moved, the Government decided to proceed with a further constitutional change by expanding the Viceroy's Executive Council so that, instead of three British and three Indian Members (in addition to the Viceroy and Commander-in-Chief), it included three British and eight Indian Members; the additional five Indians were men of eminence without any political affiliations. Thus, for the first time, the Viceroy's Executive Council comprised an Indian majority. The offer to include nominees of the Congress Party and Muslim League remained, but was not accepted. In addition the Government set up a War Advisory Council on which representatives of British India and the Indian States took their seats.

In the course of discussions Mr. Gandhi had acted as the spokesman of the Congress Party, although technically he was no longer a member of that Party. In the autumn of 1940 he had been told by the Viceroy that the Indian Government would give the Congress Party the same latitude as was given in England to professed pacifists—totalitarian pacifism being defined as the Party's attitude towards the war. If, in advocacy of this pacifism, the Government found members of the Party taking action which, in England, would bring them within the scope of the Defence of the Realm Act—a similar enactment being in force in India—then appropriate measures for protection of India's war effort would be taken. Mr. Gandhi, on October 15, 1941, retorted by launching a campaign of "limited" civil disobedience. The authorities had no option but to prosecute and imprison a large number of Congress Party adherents who deliberately broke the law at Mr. Gandhi's bidding.

Gandhi's Position

In the autumn of 1941 a storm arose over a misinterpretation of Mr. Winston Churchill's statement to the House of Commons that the Atlantic Charter did not "qualify" British policy in India. This was read with the further statement, that the Charter was primarily concerned with European countries

overrun by the Nazis, to mean that India was somehow excluded from the Charter. In November 1941 Mr. Amery publicly explained that the Charter could not be said to imply any modification of British policy in India, for the simple reason that that policy was far in advance of the general principles of the Charter. The misinterpretation had secured such a start that, even when Sir Stafford Cripps in 1942 categorically told a press conference in Delhi that there was no difficulty in the way of India participating in the Atlantic Charter, the falsehood that India was denied the benefits of that Charter continued to remain in currency.

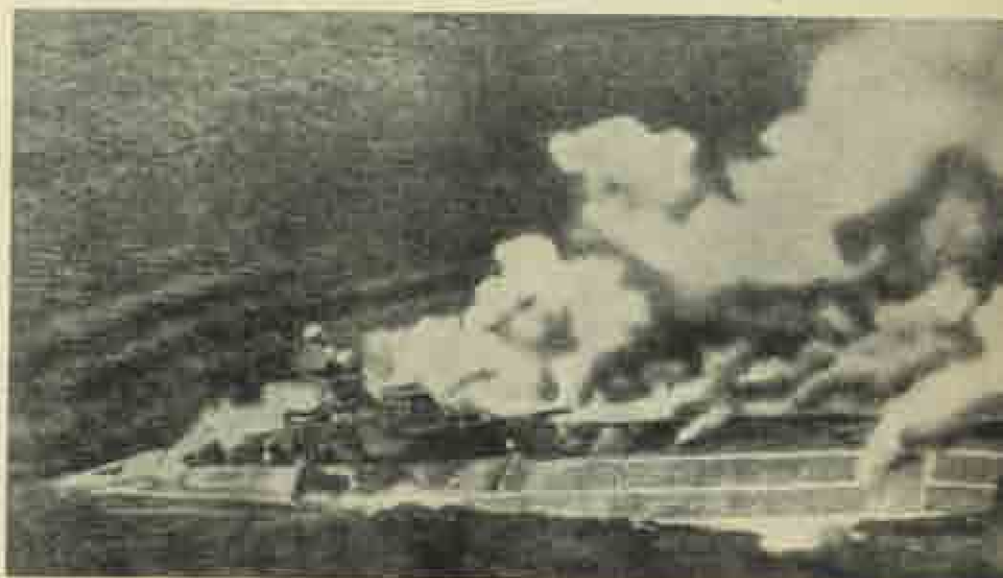
The entry of Japan into the War on the side of the Axis on December 7, 1941, and the startling disasters which followed brought to India for the first time the peril of invasion. Singapore was an Indian outpost, and Burma had up to April 1937 been part of India; as the Andaman Islands (part of an Indian province) were occupied by the Japanese on March 25, 1942, invasion of Indian soil soon became a reality. The blow to the Government's prestige was acutely felt in India, as in other parts of the world. From the point of view of the war effort in India the disasters had as great an effect as earlier catastrophes in Europe had had in Great Britain. Recruitment to the Army was stimulated, and the expansion of India's war industries proceeded at an increased pace.

India Faces Invasion

In political quarters the reaction was not so satisfactory. Defeatism, which had all along been a factor in the attitude of the Congress Party, gained ground. When the British Government announced in March 1942 that Sir Stafford Cripps, a Member of the War Cabinet, was to visit India as an envoy plenipotentiary carrying the "final" proposals of His Majesty's Government for the solution of the deadlock, the defeatists felt that, if anything, their forebodings were confirmed. Nevertheless, the Mission was hailed with apparently general satisfaction, and it was judged that if anyone could succeed in his formidable task that man was Sir Stafford. He was handicapped by the circumstance—not at all well recognized—that the Government had already gone to great lengths in its attempts to conciliate the recusant parties. It could not propose fundamental constitutional changes—not merely because of its preoccupation with the War, but also because such proposals would inevitably bring to the forefront that intractable issue of Hindu-Muslim relationships.

By that time the Muslims had made it clear that any change which exposed them to the risk of permanent political dominance by the numerical might of the Hindu electorate would be resisted to the utmost. The Congress Party—mainly Hindu in composition and outlook, despite its pretensions—would stand firm on the overriding significance of the ballot-box, regardless of the fact that its success would depend in the last resort on the sanctions provided by armed force, which could not take cognizance of political issues. So, although the proposals which Sir Stafford brought were important in the precision of their re-statement of the Government's proposals of August 1940, their only novel feature was a provision for any province of British India to remain out of the new Constitution and to negotiate separately with the Government.

This was designed to placate the Muslims, with whom the idea of a separate "state" of Pakistan had made rapid headway. It was not at all acceptable to Hindus, who looked upon it as encouraging the "break-up" of India. Pakistan was the name given to an imaginary territorial area which had been variously defined by Muslim sponsors so as to cut off the Punjab, "Afghanistan" (Baluchistan and North-West Frontier Province), Kashmir and Sind as a solid enclave in which Muslims predominated, and to add to it Eastern Bengal and part of the United Provinces, so that it could have a separate identity as a sovereign state within the new India. Actually it seemed at first to be nothing more than a bargaining counter which Mr. Jinnah could use in order to induce Hindu leaders to concede to the Muslims a greater representation



WHEN THE INVASION OF CEYLON WAS FRUSTRATED

In daylight on April 5, 1942, 75 Japanese bombers from carriers raided Colombo, and were beaten off with the loss of 25 shot down, five more probably destroyed, and 25 damaged. On the 9th, in attacking Trincomalee, the enemy lost 21 aircraft; a further dozen were probably destroyed. But after leaving Ceylon the destroyer 'Vampire,' the cruisers 'Dorsetshire' and 'Cornwall,' and the aircraft carrier 'Hermes' were lost by air attack (see pp. 2082-83). Top, a Japanese photograph said to show the sinking of the 'Hermes.' Below, Canadians of a Hurricane squadron in Ceylon beside wrecked enemy aircraft shot down by their unit.

Photos, Associated Press; Fox



than their actual numbers warranted in the central government of the India to be.

As time went on and the strength of the Muslim League grew, bitter criticisms of the Pakistan scheme from the Congress Party and Hindu spokesmen impelled the Muslim leaders to nail it to their mast. In this atmosphere Sir Stafford Cripps found that all depended on the attitude of the Congress Party, which, as it proved, meant the views of Mr. Gandhi, who led the Party from without. Mr. Gandhi saw that acceptance of the scheme by his Party would in effect draw that Party into the Government's war effort and imperil the existence of the machine which had, in his hands, become powerful and had given him, in his dominance over it, unshakable influence. Despite negotiations which at one time raised hopes, the Party had no intention of accepting unless its own control over the Government of India were immediately enforced. Such a course was impracticable. It would have stirred up intense resistance from other parties—Muslims, the Depressed Classes (Scheduled Castes) and the Indian States, representing roughly about two-fifths of the total population of India—and it would unthinkably have strangled India's war effort, at a time of critical gravity.

The breakdown of the negotiations on April 10 was announced. No Indian party had accepted the proposals because, however much these might have appealed to other than the Congress Party, their acceptance would be interpreted by opponents in an unfavourable light to the electors. The small group of representatives of the Europeans (British residents) intimated readiness to accept the proposals even though Sir Stafford's exposition could not have left them under any illusion regarding the sweeping character of the constitutional changes which were likely to accrue. This unselfish gesture of progressive sympathy with Indian aspirations was more appreciated by Indian leaders than the turmoil of disputation allowed to appear. It received more definite recognition later on, when European leaders in the Central Legislature ranged themselves formally behind the Prime Minister's endorsement of the policy which the proposals—although rejected and technically withdrawn—had outlined.



GANDHI AND NEHRU AT CONGRESS COMMITTEE

Gandhi is on the right, listening to the whispers of his secretary, Mahadev Desai. At the left of Desai, on the dais, is Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru. The session of the All-India Congress Committee opened on August 7, 1942, at Bombay. After it had passed a resolution calling for a mass movement of non-violence Gandhi, Nehru and other Congress Party leaders were arrested.

Photo, Planet News

This political controversy tended to overshadow the reality of India's great contribution to the war effort of the United Nations. In 1940 her troops in Africa had played a great part in the elimination of Mussolini's Empire. They continued to assert their strength and to gather fresh laurels for gallantry and efficiency in the extension of operations in Libya, Syria, Iraq and Persia. In the retreats in the Far East they suffered and fought gamely. When 1942 dawned with the battle spread to the frontiers of their own country they were braced to the test. In November 1941 General Sir Archibald Wavell had declared:

"The reputation of the Indian troops has long been firmly established and today it stands very high indeed in the world. Their record so far is entitled to the highest praise, and I am confident that in the even greater role they may soon have to play they will acquit themselves splendidly."

The peacetime Indian Army of 150,000 had been swollen to well over the 1,000,000 mark. Recruits—on a voluntary basis, for no conscription applied except to the British in India—poured in, and the only limitation on their numbers was imposed by the availability of equipment and officers to train them.

On February 3, 1942, the Under Secretary for India (the Duke of Devonshire) told the Lords:

"The technical equipment of the Indian Army is much in excess of anything that was dreamt of before the outbreak of war, and the Indian Army is supplying vastly larger proportions of technical personnel required to keep a modern army in the field than has been the case in the past."

Indian Troops' Achievements

The triumphs and accomplishments of Indian contingents are narrated in many Chapters of this work which deal with the Far Eastern and Middle Eastern campaigns: Punjabis and Rajputs in Hongkong (p. 1987); many units in Malaya (see table in p. 2045); others in Burma (see table in p. 2049). Earlier Chapters give credit for the gallant operations in East Africa and Libya. On May 10 the withdrawal of the Burma Army from Burma was effected under General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander. By the end of the year, under General Wavell, the task of recovering Burma had begun.

Meanwhile, the Congress Party, disturbed by the controversy which had developed over its rejection of the Cripps proposals, gathered itself together in the hope of restoring its political prestige. The defection of Mr. Rajagopalichariar, son-in-law of Mr. Gandhi and the former Prime Minister of Madras, gave occasion for demonstration of Mr. Gandhi's dominance, for the Party's ranks closed, leaving Mr. Rajagopalichariar with no following to speak of. Under Mr. Gandhi the Party Executive decided to press for the withdrawal of all British power from India. This led to the formulation of plans which—with whatever dialectical respectability they were clothed—were tantamount to encouragement of the enemy. The Government, none too soon, took action on August 8 by arresting Mr. Gandhi, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and other leaders. Disturbances, showing all the signs of intensified and calculated preparation for obstructing the war





AMERICAN AID FOR DEFENCE OF INDIA

The extreme importance of India as a base for the reconquest of Burma and the expulsion of the Japanese from China demanded immediate and large-scale reinforcement, in which the United States of America played a big part. Top, left, unpacking American army lorries at an Indian railway siding. Below, the crew of an American twin-engined bomber strip the plane of its protective wrappings ready for action after its arrival. Top, right, the United States flag flies over an advanced base in India.





BRITISH SUPPLY CONVOY NEARS INDIAN PORT

One of the largest to leave Britain for India, this convoy (below), numbering dozens of vessels, safely made the long voyage laden with aircraft, tanks, guns and other weapons and supplies to equip a large army. Left, some of the tanks after being landed. Besides the supplies for its own defence, India needed immense quantities for dispatch to the Allied armies in Persia, Iraq and Syria.

Photos, Pictorial Press; Central Press; Associated Press; Keystone



effort, and in particular the operations on the Burma frontier, broke out in many parts of India, and were accompanied by strikes. In the east of the United Provinces and in Bihar the disturbances were specially fierce. By the end of August the situation had been restored to normal; on September 3 General Wavell paid a tribute to India's armies and air force, and also to the astonishing progress in the manufacture of munitions. The disciplined might of India's fighting men was saving, and would save, India, he averred. In the course of the year reinforcements arrived from the United States, chiefly Air Squadrons, which at once played a leading part in the air attacks on Japanese-occupied Burma.

Apart from the armed forces (including the Royal Indian Navy, which distinguished itself in patrolling Indian waters, and the young Indian Air Force which shared in the air cover provided for Burma), India's war effort found notable expression in the establishment of the Eastern Group Supply Council on which representatives of Great Britain, the United States of America, Australia, South Africa, and Canada sat for directing the work of the Supply Department. This cooperation of India in the Far Eastern campaign was of great importance, and included the munitioning of operations in Persia, Iraq and Syria. Moreover, the Persian Gulf road of access to Russia gave India the opportunity of making a special contribution to the assistance of that ally, as also by means of air transport to China after the Burma Road had been closed by Japanese action.

Eastern Supply Council

The disquietude prevailing in the public mind after the breakdown of the Cripps negotiations was replaced later by satisfaction at the advance made by the Eight Army under General Montgomery in Libya. Then, too, there had been considerable apprehension about the presence of a Japanese naval squadron in the Indian Ocean, and the enemy occupation of the Andaman Islands, about 900 miles distant from Trincomalee (Ceylon) and 800 from Calcutta. The Andamans had been evacuated by our troops on March 12; 13 days later the Japanese announced they had occupied them. On Easter Sunday, April 5, at 8 in the morning, 75 Japanese aircraft bombed Colombo, mainly the harbour area. But the defences were in alert readiness: two of the raiders were destroyed by the anti-aircraft guns and 23 by our fighters. Nor was this all, for five more were stated to be probably destroyed, and 25 to have been damaged.



U.S. ENVOY TO INDIA

On December 11, 1942, Washington announced the appointment of Mr. William Phillips as American envoy to India. He arrived at New Delhi on January 8, 1943. Mr. Phillips had held the post of United States Ambassador to Italy.

Photo, Topical Press

It was a Canadian pilot, Squadron Leader L. J. Birchall, D.F.C., R.C.A.F., whose timely warning enabled the guns and aircraft of the defence to be prepared for the enemy. While on a reconnaissance flight in his Catalina flying-boat on April 4 he had observed the Japanese fleet off the S.E. coast of Ceylon, and had sent back the information by radio. He failed to return from this flight, and nothing more was heard till, almost a year later, he was reported a prisoner of war at Yokohama. Undoubtedly the Japanese object was an invasion of Ceylon, but the failure of their bombing onslaught deterred them. The enemy fleet had comprised three battleships, five aircraft carriers and a strong escort of cruisers and destroyers. Trincomalee was bombed on the 9th, the enemy losing 21 aircraft for certain and a further 12 probably destroyed. British casualties were light, but four fine ships—destroyer "Vampire," cruisers "Dorsetshire" and "Cornwall," and aircraft carrier "Hermes"—were lost by air attack after leaving Ceylon ports.

Japanese Attack on Ceylon

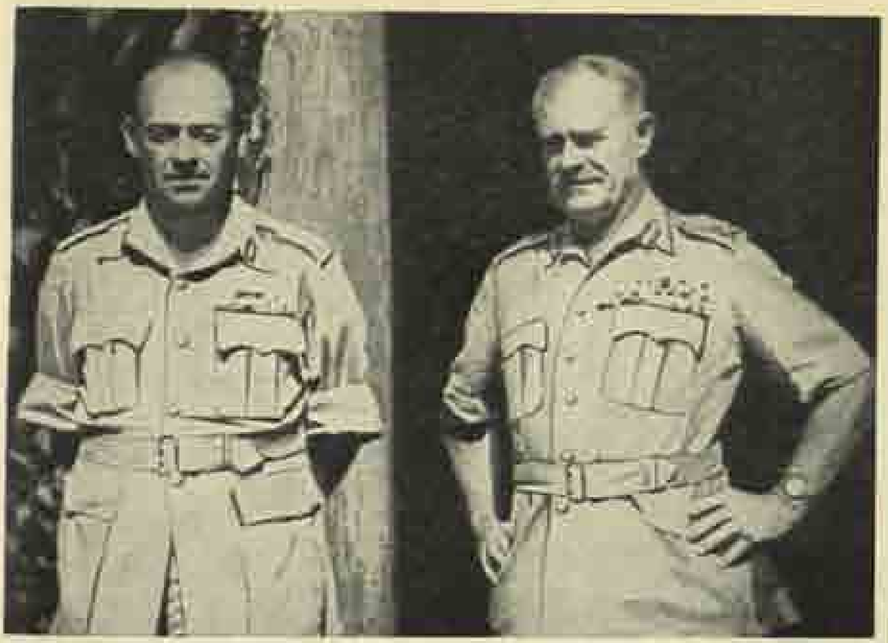
The repulse of this attack and the averting of the danger of invasion, followed by the occupation of Madagascar in May, had done much to reassure Indian opinion. The policy of developing the association of Indians with the administration despite the political deadlock was continued. In July 1942 a further expansion of the Viceroy's Executive Council took place. The number of Indian Members (Ministers) was increased to 11, a non-official European (Sir Edward Benthall) being for the first time given a seat. This, with the Viceroy and Commander-in-Chief (General Wavell), gave the



GENERALISSIMO CHIANG KAI-SHEK MEETS MR. GANDHI

The main purpose of Chiang Kai-shek's visit, which began on February 10, 1942, and lasted a fortnight, was to consult with General Sir Alan Hartley, C.-in-C. India. He saw a number of the Indian leaders, including Mr. Jinnah and Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, and had a five-hour talk with Mr. Gandhi (above, right).

Photo, Keystone



LIMITED ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN BURMA

Towards the end of December 1942 British troops crossed into Burma. By the 29th they had penetrated to the Chindwin Valley and later occupied the Maungdaw-Buthidaung area, 60 miles N. of Akyab (see map). A few days earlier General Sir Archibald Wavell, C.-in-C. India, had inspected our forward positions. He is seen above (right) with Lieut.-Gen. N. M. S. Irwin, Commander of India's Eastern Army. (After a difficult campaign with fluctuating fortunes in most trying terrain British forces were withdrawn in May 1943.)

Photo, Indian Official

Council a racial composition of 11 Indians and five British. The portfolios were thus assigned: War, General Wavell; Defence, Sir Feroz Khan Noon; Finance, Sir Jeremy Raisman; Home, Sir Reginald Maxwell; Supply, Sir Hormusji Mody; Civil Defence, Sir Jwala Srivastava; Law, Sir Sultan Ahmed; Labour, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar; Transport, Sir Edward Benthall; Overseas, Mr. M. S. Aney; Commerce, Mr. N. R. Sarker; Information, Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar; Education (including Health), Sir Jogendra Singh; Posts and Air, Sir Muhammad Usman (without portfolio).

Pertinent to this increased "Indianization" is mention of the important decision which gave India additional recognition of her approach to Dominion status. In 1941 Sir Girja Shankar Bajpait was appointed the first Agent-General to the Government of India at Washington and Mr. Thomas Wilson became the United States Minister at Delhi. Mr. Wilson's place was taken in December 1942 by Mr. William Phillips, a leading member of the United States diplomatic service. In 1942 also Sir Mahomed Zafrullah Khan went to Chungking as India's first Agent-General in China, and Mr. Shen Shih-hua became China's first representative at Delhi.

Diplomatic Representation Granted

The great advance in India's financial development, thanks to the turning of the balance of trade with the United Kingdom in her favour, was shown by her dramatic repatriation of her sterling payments. In March 1936 her sterling debt stood at about £376 million. By March 1942 the figure had been reduced to £90 million. It was expected to fall to £66 million at the beginning of 1943. Thus British investment in loans floated for the development of Indian railways, canals and other productive public works had been liquidated. India now owns practically all her own railways and manages them as well. In privately owned industry there has been a marked advance of Indian capital. Cotton, iron, steel, sugar, cement, and many other industries are in Indian hands. In the jute and coal industries formerly in British hands Indian capital is replacing British. Lord Catto told the House of Lords that in 1942 75 per cent of the jute industry was in the hands of Indian investors. To this development the expansion of Indian industries during the war has made notable contribution. The British taxpayer has disbursed something like £300 million for the modernization of India's defence services.

These financial and administrative changes afford a clue to the success with which the Government of India, despite the sharp political crises, was able to lead the country's war effort. The steady influx of Indians into the civil and defence services in the higher ranks was another portent. During 1942, for the first time in its history, the I.C.S. (the premier Civil Service) had more Indians than British members (617 to 585), and it was disclosed that one-fifth of the cadre of officers of the Indian Army (King's Commissions) were Indian.

To sum up the situation in India at the end of 1942: after playing a great part in Africa, the Far East and Burma, Indian troops with their American, British and Chinese comrades-in-arms stood four-square first in resistance to the Axis aggressors and, as the tide began to turn, in preparation for the recovery of lost territory and the punishment of the wrongdoers. India's industrial machine had been worked up to a fine pitch of efficiency in support of this effort. India held firm as the vital link in the chain of the United Nations stretching from the Caspian to the China Sea.



By September 1942 India's casualties in the Second Great War were officially stated to be 100,000, of whom 2,096 were killed, 8,521 wounded, 2,938 prisoners and 84,833 missing. Despite that, the total strength of the expanded Indian Army at the end of the year 1942 was assessed at nearly 2,000,000—free men freely enrolling in the common cause. This stood out as the essential fact, behind which political hesitancies merely served to bring into sharper relief the fine spirit of gallantry which, once again, the genius of Indian and British teamwork had been able to mobilize for the dedication of India's young nationhood to the victory of the forces of liberty. It showed that the increased responsibilities which had been thrown on India in the generation which had passed had enhanced rather than dimmed the readiness of her sons to uphold the great martial traditions of the past at the call of the King-Emperor.







DESERT PATROLS IN THE LIBYAN CAMPAIGN

Organized by Major R. A. Bagnold and staffed by picked New Zealanders, the mobile motor columns of the Long Range Desert Group travelled thousands of miles far into the enemy's country, over unmapped desert. They secured vital information, shot up forts, laid mines, attacked oases, and stopped normal traffic along many desert routes. Here are vivid impressions of some aspects of their work. Top, left, On Patrol; right, Grim Escarpment. Lower left, Eroded Rock; right, Beyond the Sand Sea.

From drawings by Capt. Peter McIntyre (Official N.Z. Artist); reproduced by courtesy of the New Zealand Government



Chapter 224

LIBYAN CAMPAIGN: ROMMEL'S ADVANCE TO EL ALAMEIN

Few battlegrounds—using the term in its wide application—can have witnessed such swift reversals of fortune as the deserts of Libya and the stretch of territory westward to Tripoli. Here is the story of Rommel's offensive, beginning in mid-January, 1942, which carried the Afrika Korps by July to the threshold of the great cities of Egypt, where, at the El Alamein line, the enemy was held up by the bravery and determination of the British Eighth Army

Somewhere in the neighbourhood of El Agheila on the Gulf of Sirte Rommel's Afrika Korps and Auchinleck's 8th or Desert Army achieved a state of uneasy equilibrium. It was mid-January, 1942, and the see-saw that had carried the British so many hundreds of miles in triumph was about to reverse its swing. Rommel was desperately in need of a breather, and now he was in occupation of a readily defensible position—an area of marsh, flanked by the sea on one side and the limitless desert on the other, and with a front which the German engineers speedily converted into one vast minefield. Auchinleck's supply line was stretched almost to breaking-point. Fuel, food and water were none too plentiful, and before long the troops in the front line were living on bully beef, biscuits, and tea. Practically all the supplies had to be brought along the single road that stretched back like an immense snake to the railhead somewhere west of the Egyptian frontier. If Benghazi could have been used as a port much might have been brought by sea; but Benghazi was bombed and its waters mined day and night by German planes operating from airfields in Sicily, and submarines lay in wait outside the harbour, which was filled with tangled wreckage. Even if transport planes had been available (which they were not) they would have been unable to find suitable landing-grounds. For by now the rains had come, and everywhere road and beach and desert were a mass of wellnigh impassable mud. It was a miserable time, spent in a miserable setting; the men in their flimsy bivouacs huddled together for warmth and company, soaked to the skin and with little or nothing wherewith to make a fire.

Reinforcements for Rommel

Then once again the military machines, clogged though their wheels were with the desert mud, began to turn again, slowly at first and ponderously, but soon with increased momentum. It was the enemy's turn to advance, and it was soon apparent that Rommel had made good use of the period of martial inactivity. In spite of the British submarines he had managed to get a number of tanks and guns landed on the adjacent beach, and considerable reinforcements had also made the passage from Italy. Moreover, he was in a much better position than his antagonist with regard to his supply line: behind him a good road ran all the way to his great base at Tripoli, and at the very time when the British were feeling the pinch his own dumps were being filled to overflowing.

ALLIED UNITS IN DESERT CAMPAIGN, January–October, 1942

British. 3rd, 5th, 7th, 8th, 42nd and 44th Royal Tank Regiments; the Queen's Bays, King's Dragoon Guards, 1st Royal Dragoons, 8th Hussars, 10th Hussars, 9th Lancers, 12th Lancers, City of London Yeomanry, Royal Gloucester Hussars, Royal Northumberland Fusiliers; Durham Light Infantry, Coldstream Guards, Scots Guards, Worcesters, Cheshires, East Yorks, Green Howards, King's Royal Rifle Corps, Rifle Brigade; 3rd and 4th Regiments Royal Horse Artillery, and the Honourable Artillery Company (11th Regiment, R.H.A.), Royal Artillery, field regiments, and heavy and light anti-aircraft regiments.

Indian Army. Regiments included Skinner's Horse, Baluchis, Punjabis, and the Frontier Force Rifles.

Fighting French. Forces included the 2nd/13th and 3rd/13th Foreign Legion, Bataillons du Pacifique, and the 1st and 2nd Marine Battalions.

From Cairo on January 22, 1942, came the news that on the previous day, in conditions of bad visibility, Rommel had sent out three strong tank columns on a "reconnaissance in force" east of a line running south of Mersa Brega. British light forces made contact and inflicted some casualties, but were forced to fall back. During the next few days there was confused desert fighting in the triangle made by Jedabia, Antelat and



GENERAL RITCHIE WITH HIS CORPS COMMANDERS

General Neil Methuen Ritchie (centre) was appointed to command the Eighth Army in December 1941 in succession to General Cunningham. He was relieved of his post by General Auchinleck (who himself assumed command) on June 25, 1942. Left, Lieut.-Gen. Willoughby Norrie (30th Corps); right, Lieut.-Gen. W. H. ("Strafer") Gott—13th Corps—who was killed in August when his plane was shot down.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



SOUTH AFRICAN PATROL SHELTERS FROM MORTAR FIRE

The range was short, and débris can be seen flying. At Gazala, in which region this photograph was probably taken, the South Africans and the British 50th Division were nearly trapped by the advancing enemy on June 15, 1942. Covered by the 50th, the South Africans first made a fighting withdrawal along the coastal road. The 50th then struck westward into the Italian positions, later wheeled south and eventually reached safety, doing much damage en route.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright

Saunnu. By January 25 a wide area in Cyrenaica had become a battle zone, and the enemy's main force was reported to be pushing hard north and north-east of Msus. Then on the 28th Rommel assumed the offensive in real earnest. One enemy tank force which had already reached Regima, some 20 miles to the east of Benghazi, pressed on to establish itself across the coast road to the north of the town; a second force was active in the Msus area; while a third, composed of two strong armoured columns, forced the 7th Indian Infantry Brigade to give ground at Benghazi itself.

The Indians at one time were surrounded, but they managed to cut themselves out and retreated in good order along the coast for some 200 miles through enemy-infested country. In face of the strong enemy thrust Benghazi was evacuated on January 29. Following the withdrawal of the 4th Indian Division Derna was occupied by the enemy on February 3; and by the end of the first week in February practically the whole of the Cyrenaican "bulge" had been lost, and the main forces were engaged in the neighbourhood of Mekili-Tmimi and Gazala. Here the 8th Army put up a strong resistance, while sandstorms and heavy rain made operations by land or air exceedingly difficult. Both sides threw out small patrols, and there were occasional artillery exchanges and small-scale engagements in the desert.

As March drew on there were signs of renewed movement on the enemy's part. His artillery became increasingly active; and strong columns, including tanks, pushed ahead south of Gazala. These moves met their response in the shape of fighting columns of British troops who engaged in spirited harassing activities. Then there was a lull. March passed into April and April into May, and every week that went by served to fortify the belief that at length the British had solved a hitherto insoluble problem, that of establishing and maintaining in the desert a line that should be really stable. To quote a passage from Alan Moorehead's *A Year of Battle* (London, Hamish Hamilton):

"Ritchie and his two lieutenant-generals [W. H. ('Strafer') Gott and Willoughby Norrie] decided to drop the idea of having a continuous chain of defences at Gazala. They decided to define their position with a solid minefield stretching about 35 miles from the sea southward into the desert, but they did not man the minefield. Instead they sealed up their troops in or behind the minefield in a series of isolated forts or 'boxes.' These boxes faced four-square, ready to meet attack from any direction. It was the old idea of the British square at Waterloo, adapted to modern fast armoured fighting. Each box was completely surrounded with a ring of land-mines and barbed wire. Guns faced outwards in all directions. The boxes were only a mile or two square at the most, and were provided with water, food and ammunition to withstand a siege. Narrow lanes led in through the mines and wire so that the garrison could be supplied."

There were some half-dozen of these boxes, each of which the Nazi tanks were at liberty to by-pass or surround as they pleased—but at their peril. They might seize all the surrounding desert: but to what end? They could not push on to more valuable conquests for fear the British should sally forth from their boxes and take them in the rear. The main boxes were at Gazala, near the shore: they were manned by Maj.-Gen. Dan Pienaar's 1st South African Division. A few miles to the south men from the Tees and Tyne held



Maj.-Gen. W. H. RAMSDEN — **Maj.-Gen. H. LUMSDEN** — **Maj.-Gen. F. W. MESSERVY**

Maj.-Gen. Ramsden commanded the British 50th Division of the Eighth Army; Maj.-Gen. Lumsden, after commanding the 1st Armoured Division, with much success, was appointed in August 1942 to the 10th Army Corps. At the same period Maj.-Gen. Messervy was appointed to command the 7th Armoured Division on the death of Maj.-Gen. 'Jock' Campbell, V.C. (see illus. p. 2007).

Photos, British Official : Crown Copyright ; Associated Press





AT TEL EL EISA AND HEIMEMAT

Rommel's onrush was stopped by the beginning of July, and on the 12th the Eighth Army gained ground by an advance to the Tel el Eisa ridge. There was furious fighting around the station (top). The building was later dismantled and its wood used for headpieces and crosses on the many graves around. Right, an American-built General Stewart or 'Honey' tank, out on patrol near El Heimemat, a 200-feet hill on the edge of the Qattara Depression. The Afrika Korps attacked here at the end of August. (See map, p. 2235.)

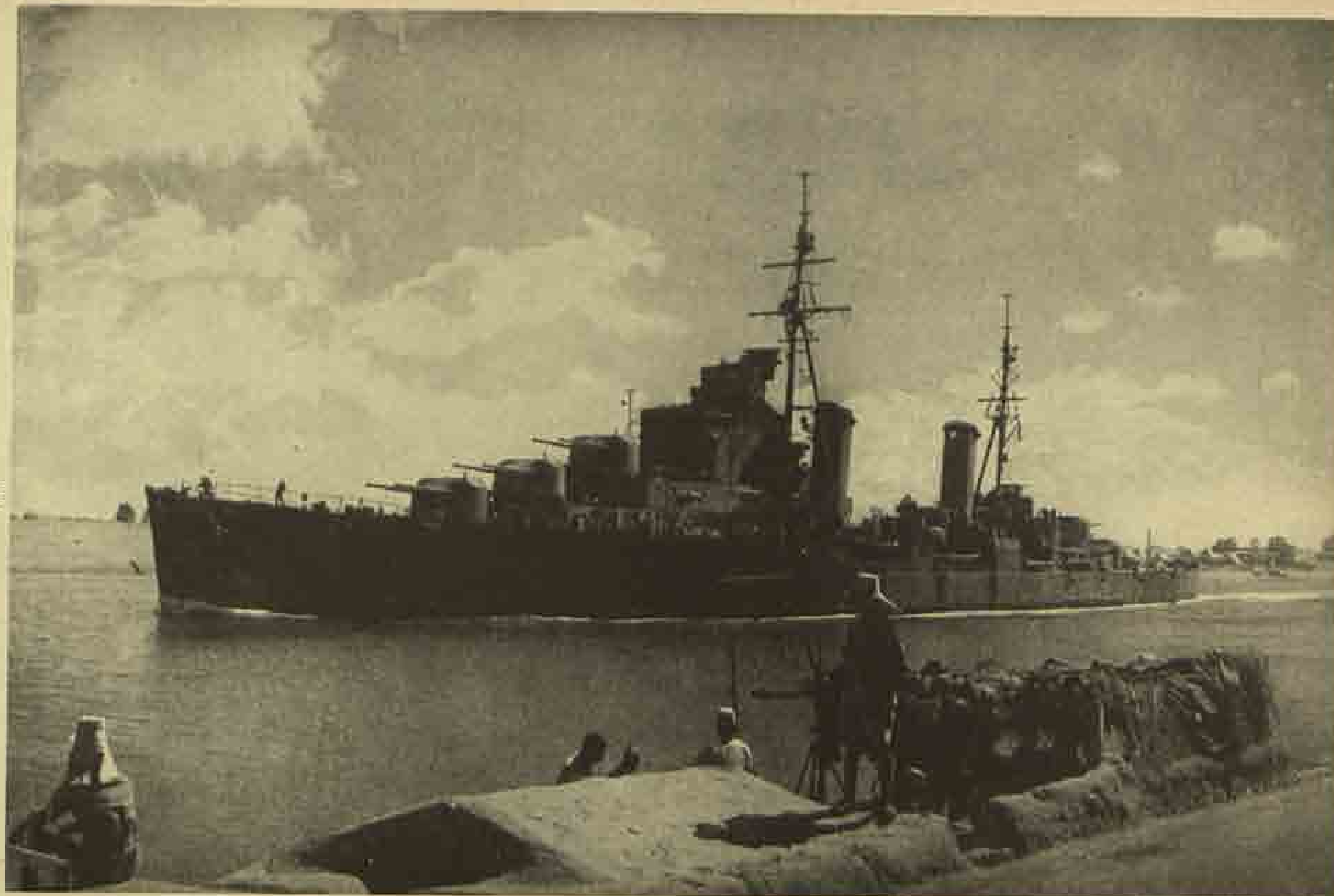
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



DOMINANT SIX-POUNDERS

Anti-tank artillery dominated the Libyan battlefields, and not until our guns had been silenced (by aircraft, artillery fire and infantry attacks) did the Germans send their tanks against a strong British tank force. The British six-pounder supplanted the two-pounder, and was used on tanks as well as in field batteries. It had a calibre of [illegible] inches and a high rate of fire—outranging the German weapon of the same type. Here is seen a British six-pounder in a long-range duel in the desert; an enemy shell lands close by

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



EGYPT DEFENDS THE SUEZ CANAL

Owing to the danger of mines laid by enemy aircraft in this vital waterway, special units of the Egyptian Army were posted along the banks to spot and clear them. Here the British light cruiser 'Euryalus,' en route to Port Said, is passing a mine-spotting post. Completed in June 1939, she displaced 5,450 tons and belonged to the Dido class.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





KNIGHTSBRIDGE, OR THE DEVIL'S CAULDRON

There was little but the Army's signpost (right: note the eight-figure map reference) to distinguish Knightsbridge from the desert around, but here was one of the Eighth Army's "boxes," held by the English Guards. The fierce battle in this region at the end of May 1942 was described by Alan Moorehead as "Waterloo over again." Above, British 25-pounders firing at enemy armoured fighting vehicles during the engagement.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

the next series. Behind the centre the Guards held the Knightsbridge box established in a bare desert waste. At Bir Hacheim, the southern terminus of the front, were the Free French under General Koenig. Further in rear of the centre, at El Adem, there was a box held by Indian troops; while Tobruk, the big base box, was garrisoned by Maj.-Gen. Klopper's 2nd South African Division and British lines-of-communication men. Roaming between the boxes were three British tank brigades. Lt.-Gen. Neil Ritchie, the 8th Army's G.O.C., and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham, Chief of the Air Arm, had their H.Q. at Gambut. Altogether Ritchie had about 10 divisions, say 130,000 men, with perhaps 500 tanks. Rommel had about the same.

For weeks the tension grew: each side made ready. The Germans had the advantage here, since they could get a tank into the front area within a month of its leaving the factory, while it took the British some four months to get a tank from America or Britain via the Cape. In the supply of aeroplanes their advantage was even greater. But all the same Ritchie was soon in possession of new tanks—American Grants (armed with a gun as big as the German 75-millimetre), and a new anti-tank gun, the 6-pounder, mounted on a Chevrolet truck. For the most part, however, he still had to rely on British Valentine and American Honey tanks, while most of his anti-tank guns were Bofors and the 2-pounder. As for aircraft, the Germans may have had the supremacy in numbers, but Coningham's Kittyhawks, Beaufighters, Blenheims, Wellingtons, etc., were being supplemented by a few Spitfires and Hurribombers. So the stage was set for the contest.

New Tanks for Ritchie

Then, to quote Alan Moorehead again:

"Early on the morning of May 26th [1942] a British tank commander saw through his glasses an unusual pillar of dust going up from the south of Bir Hacheim. Straining his eyes through the early morning haze he saw the dust cloud deepen and expand. Little black dots were spaced along the bottom of the cloud. 'Looks like a brigade of Jerry tanks coming,' he reported over his telephone to his headquarters. He looked again and added sharply, 'It's more than a brigade. It's the whole bloody Afrika Korps.' The battle had begun."

The course of the ensuing battle was described in a statement by General Auchinleck read to the House of Commons by Mr. Churchill on June 2. In an order of the day issued to all Italian and German troops in his pay Rommel had told them that they were about to carry through a decisive attack against the British forces in Libya, and that for this purpose he had made ready and equipped a force superior in numbers, with perfected armament and a powerful air force to give it support. From captured documents it was clear that Rommel's object was to defeat our armoured forces and capture Tobruk. The main ingredients of the enemy commander's plan were (1) to capture Bir Hacheim, held by the Free French under General Koenig; (2) to pass round by the south of Bir Hacheim the German Afrika Korps, comprising the 15th (Bismarck) and 21st (Nehring) German Armoured Divisions, to be followed closely by the German 90th Light Division and the 20th Italian Mobile Corps, consisting of the 132nd Ariete Armoured Division and the 101st Trieste Motorized Division; and (3) to attack in strength our positions running south from the coast at Gazala to the Capuzzo Road—positions held by the South African and 50th (Maj.-Gen. W. H. Ramsden) British Divisions, the

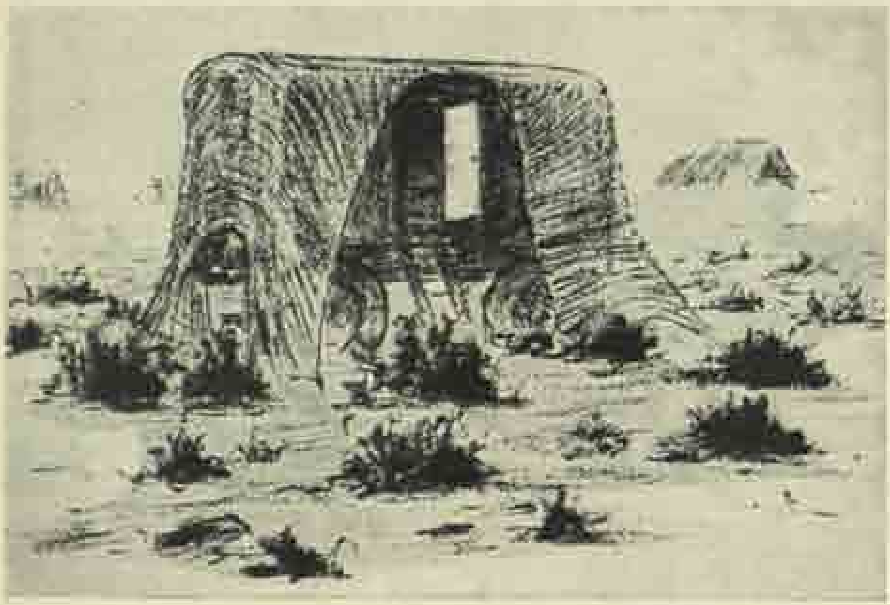




CONTRAST IN LIBYAN HEADQUARTERS

Below, Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder's sketch of the camouflaged vehicle which served as Air H.Q. and Eighth Army H.Q. at Gambut in May 1942; it was made at 7.30 one morning. Above are some of the bizarre mural decorations in the hut at El Daba occupied by Rommel when German forces were stationed there

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



latter including battalions of the East Yorkshire Regt., Green Howards and Durham Light Infantry.

On the night of May 26-27 the Afrika Korps carried out its part of the plan; it passed to the south of Bir Hacheim, then moved north with great rapidity towards Acroma and the old battlefields of El Duda and Sidi Rezegh, which were actually reached by some of its most forward troops. They were soon driven off, however, by British armoured forces; and some Axis tanks which reached the escarpment overlooking the coast road north of Acroma failed to interrupt communications between Tobruk and the South Africans holding our forward positions. A little fleet of hostile craft, attempting a landing from the sea at this spot, was driven off by British Naval forces on the same night.

Long before the Axis armoured and motorized troops approached El Adem or Acroma they were brought to action by the British 1st (Maj.-Gen. H. Lumsden) and 7th (Maj.-Gen. F. W. Messervy) Armoured Divisions, ably seconded by the heavy tank brigades in that area. The full brunt of the enemy initial advance to the east of Bir Hacheim was taken by the 3rd Indian Motor Brigade Troop, which was overborne by sheer weight of metal, though not until it had inflicted heavy losses on the enemy and seriously impeded his advance. Meanwhile the Italians attacking Bir Hacheim were beaten off by the French with heavy loss.

The third part of the enemy's plan—the attack on the northern front of our main positions south of Gazala—materialized on May 27, but achieved little or nothing. An attempt to break through the defences along the coast road by the Gazala inlet was easily stopped by the 1st South African Division. Throughout May 28, 29 and 30 there was very heavy and continuous fighting between our armoured divisions and brigades and the German Afrika Korps, backed up by the Italian Mobile Corps. The battle swayed over a wide area from Acroma in the north to Bir Hacheim, 40 miles to the south—from El Adem, near Tobruk, to the British minefields 30 miles away to the west.

Wide Swaying Battle

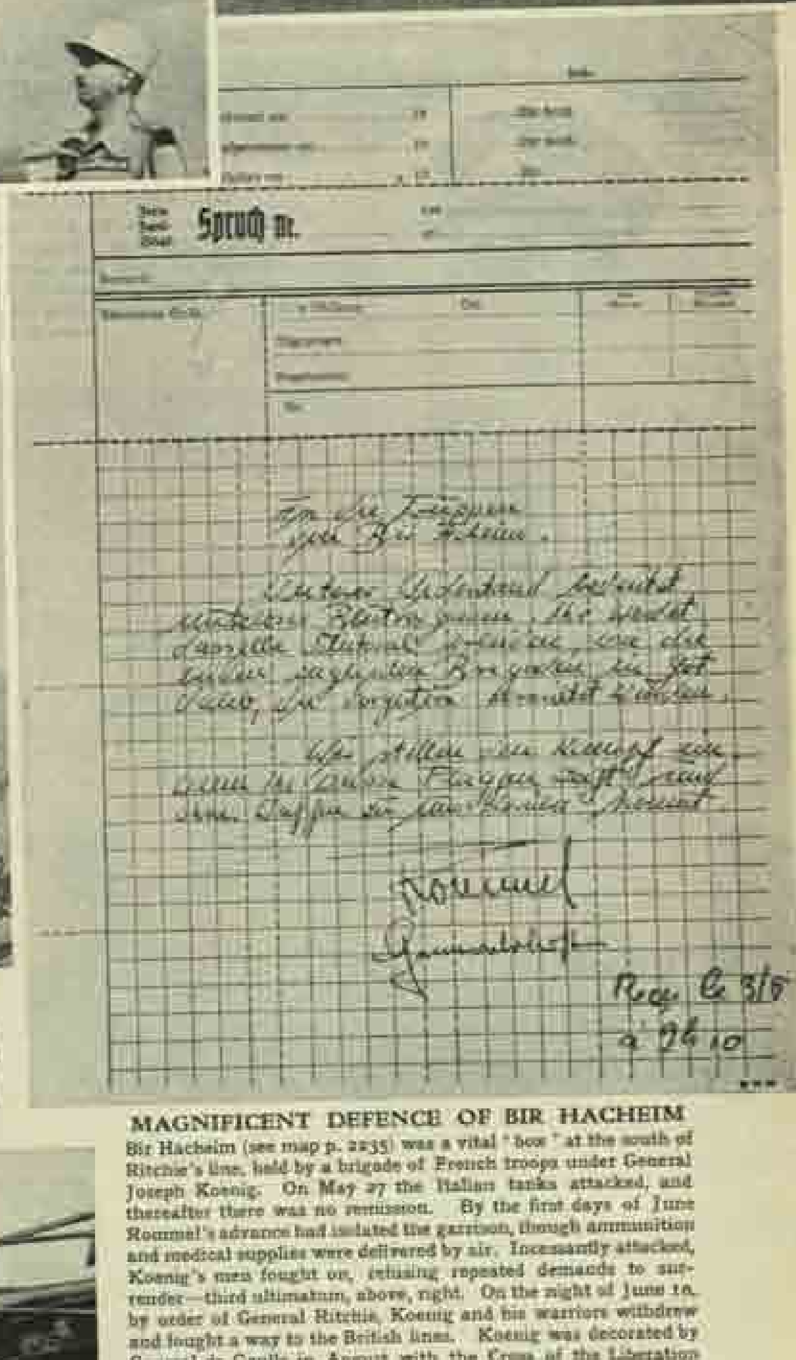
Knightsbridge, or the Devil's Cauldron as some called it—the area surrounding the box held by the English Guards—was the very heart and centre of the fiercest fighting of the battle. Moorehead described the action as being Waterloo over again. It was just the sort of action that suited the Guards: a position was given you to fortify, and you got the order to hold it to the last round and the last man.

"These odd gawky officers (writes Moorehead) with prickly mustachios, their little military affectations, their high-pitched voices, and their little jokes from the world









Spruch Nr.

An die Truppen von Bir Hakeim.

Weiterer Widerstand bedeutet unnützes Blutvergiessen. Ihr werdet dasselbe Schicksal erleiden, wie die beiden englischen Brigaden in Got Saleb, die vorgestern vernichtet wurden.

Wir stellen den Kampf ein, wenn Ihr weisse Flaggen zeigt und ohne Waffen zu uns herüber kommt.

Rommel
Generaloberst

Rec. 6 3/6
a 9h10

ROMMEL'S ULTIMATUM TO KOENIG:

'To the troops at Bir Hacheim. Further resistance would cause useless bloodshed. You would suffer the same fate as the two English brigades annihilated the day before yesterday at Got Saleb. We will cease fire if you hoist the white flag and come unarmed into our lines. (Signed) Rommel.'



MAGNIFICENT DEFENCE OF BIR HACHEIM

Bir Hacheim (see map p. 2235) was a vital 'box' at the south of Ritchie's line, held by a brigade of French troops under General Joseph Koenig. On May 27 the Italian tanks attacked, and thereafter there was no remission. By the first days of June Rommel's advance had isolated the garrison, though ammunition and medical supplies were delivered by air. Incessantly attacked, Koenig's men fought on, refusing repeated demands to surrender—third ultimatum, above, right. On the night of June 10, by order of General Ritchie, Koenig and his warriors withdrew and fought a way to the British lines. Koenig was decorated by General de Gaulle in August with the Cross of the Liberation (inset). Top, enemy dive-bombers and tanks attacking; above, left, two of the Fighting French defenders; lower left, Bir Hacheim as the Afrika Korps found it.





GERMAN ATTACK WHICH BROUGHT ABOUT TOBRUK'S FALL

On June 21, 1942, the Axis troops occupied Tobruk, after a desperate struggle which began on the preceding afternoon. Tobruk had been in our hands since January 21, 1941, and we regained it on November 13, after Gen. Montgomery's decisive victory. It was defended in June by the 2nd South African Division, commanded by Maj.-Gen. H. B. Klopper (inset), with a mixed British and Indian force. Top, Stukas bombing the defences; below, German assault troops supported by tank formations move up to our wire under cover of a heavy smoke screen.

Photos, Keystone; Sport & General





ROMMEL'S ADVANCE TO EL ALAMEIN, JULY 1942

Beginning his offensive in mid-January, 1942, Rommel had won back the whole of the Cyrenaican bulge by the first week in February. British 'box' defences at Gazala, Knightsbridge, Bir Hacheim, El Adem and Tobruk halted him until, at the end of May, he swept on again. The key position at Bir Hacheim had to be relinquished on June 10, and a general withdrawal followed. Tobruk fell on the 21st; Mersa Matruh was evacuated eight days later, and by the end of the month Rommel was facing the Eighth Army at El Alamein. See also maps in pp. 1590 and 2011.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Félix Gardon*

of Mayfair and Ascot, kept bringing their men up to the enemy, and the men, because they were the picked soldiers of the regular Army and native Englishmen and Scots, did exactly as they were told. Knightsbridge did not break because it could not break. It stood through this maelstrom as a rock will stand against the sea."

At length the enemy, running short of supplies and water, forced gaps in our minefields, one along the general line of the Capuzzo Road, and another 10 miles to the south, so as to retreat to the west.

Rommel Withdraws

These gaps lay on either side of the defended area held by a brigade of infantry from the north of England. This brigade strenuously resisted the enemy's attempts to pass his transport through their ranks, and on May 28 Air Vice-Marshal Coningham directed his whole air force on to low attacks against the enemy armour and motor transport in this region. By nightfall on May 31 the enemy had succeeded in withdrawing many of his tanks and much transport through one or other of the gaps, but a very large number remained on the wrong side of his anti-tank barriers, and these were ceaselessly harried and destroyed by our troops and the bombers and fighters of the Air Force.

Fierce fighting was still proceeding (said General Auchinleck's statement of June 2), and the battle was by no means over; but there was no shadow of doubt that Rommel's plans had gone completely awry. In a further telegram the C.-in-C. paid tribute to the skill, determination and pertinacity shown by General Ritchie and his corps commanders, Lieut.-Generals Norrie and Gott. He also expressed satisfaction with the performance of the new General Grant tanks.

It was a crucial stage in the battle.

"The enemy was exhausted," said Mr. Attlee, Deputy Prime Minister, in the House of Commons on June 23, quoting from the latest dispatch from General Auchinleck, "and had literally fought himself to a standstill. Had we been able to take advantage of the enemy's condition, we might have turned the scale. In point of fact, however, we were equally exhausted, and this was impossible.

"On June 3 the enemy succeeded in overrunning the 150th Brigade, and established for himself a forward post in our minefield area. In an attempt to restore the position and drive him out General Ritchie counter-attacked on June 4. On the information available at the time the chances of success at this attempt seemed good, and it was preceded by adequate and careful reconnaissance. But it is now clear that it was in fact premature. The enemy put in a fierce counter-stroke, in face of which we were forced to withdraw with considerable losses."

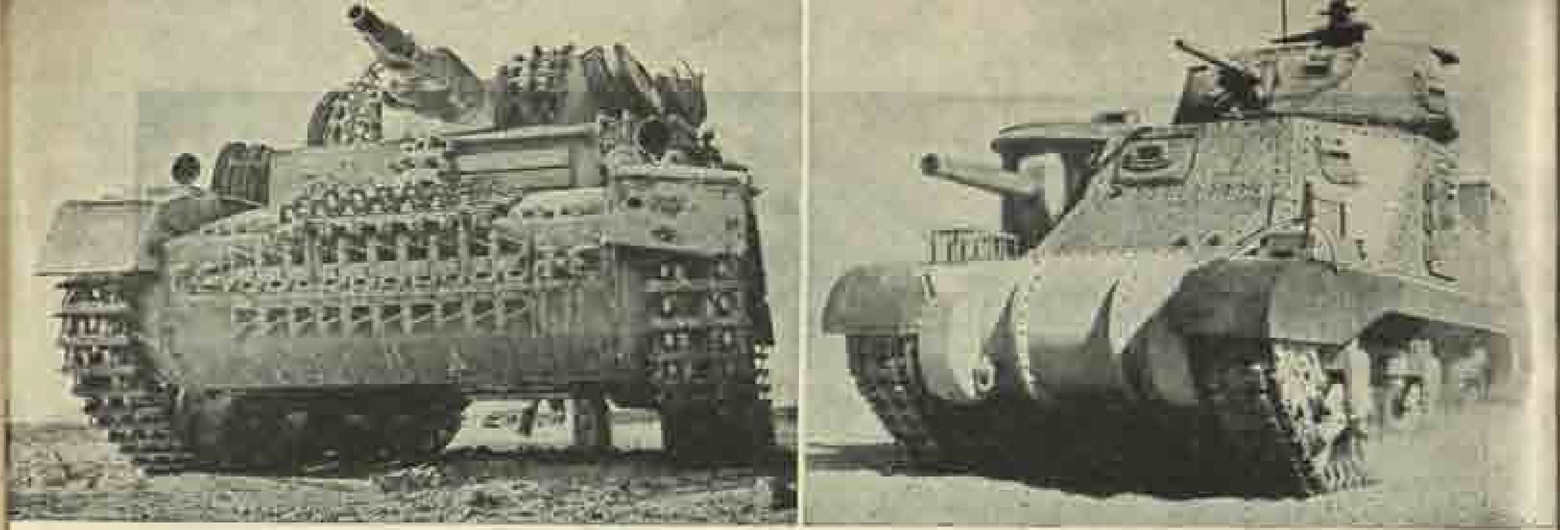
Following this success, the enemy concentrated his attention on Bir Hacheim, where Koenig's Fighting French had already been subjected to heavy pressure for a period of nine days. An Alsatian veteran of the last war, Koenig declared bluntly that "my



PRECIOUS WATER SUPPLIES

After water convoys have searched for water holes and wells in the desert, other units fill white-painted cans which are taken on lorries to the fighting units. Here some of the cans are being unloaded.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



TANK TYPES IN LIBYAN BATTLES

Left, the German Mark IV heavy tank was a formidable opponent, armed with a 4½-pounder gun. Spare tracks and other components were carried on the front. The American-built General Grant (right), used by the Eighth Army, weighed about 28 tons and carried two guns—37-mm. (in top turret) and 75-mm. It was later superseded by the General Sherman.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

orders were to hold Bir Hacheim. I hold Bir Hacheim." For 16 days of almost continuous fighting in great heat and recurrent sandstorms his weary, powder-blackened but grimly resolute warriors held the fort against every assault. More than a thousand tanks were flung against their defences as well as countless aircraft, the fire of a great host of guns. Time after time Koenig was called upon to surrender; each time he replied with the same brief and unprintable reply. An Italian prisoner said: "we are beginning to believe that Bir Hacheim is being held by phantom Frenchmen; we cannot believe that they are still alive after the terrific pounding that we have been giving them." The Frenchmen themselves called their position the "lost inferno" as they looked out above their battered parapets at the surrounding desert littered with smashed German tanks and piles of Italian corpses. "All France looks to you in her pride," ran a message from General de Gaulle to General Koenig on June 10. That night, but only on the direct order of General Ritchie, Koenig and the survivors of his little force were withdrawn. "They have played a vital part in upsetting the enemy's plans," ran the official communiqué; "their magnificent fighting qualities have earned the admiration of the United Nations."

The fall of Bir Hacheim released considerable enemy forces, and soon the armoured squadrons clashed again in a great new battle in the desert south-west of Knightsbridge. For five days fighting proceeded round Knightsbridge and Acroma. Until June 13 (the Prime Minister told the House of Commons on July 2) the battle was equal. "Our recovery process had worked well. Both sides lost proportionately. But on June 13 there came a change. On that morning we had about 300 tanks in action. By nightfall no more than 70 remained, and this happened without any corresponding loss having been inflicted on the enemy." Months after, it was revealed that the reverse had not been so sudden or so shattering as had been supposed. "According to the latest information," said Mr. Churchill in the House of Commons on September 8, "about 200 tanks were lost over a period of about a week. It is not possible to say exactly how many were lost on June 13, but the bulk of the losses probably took place on that and the previous day." There was no ambush, it appeared; only an attack that failed. Moorehead declares that about 30 tanks were lost on June 13, when our armour fought a head-on battle with the German panzers and massed artillery. But—and this was the all-important fact—Rommel had reserves, and we had none.

Of the result of the action there was all too little doubt. The battlefield, as Mr. Churchill said, passed into the hands of the enemy, so that his wounded tanks were repaired while ours were lost to us. Among the many dire consequences was the British decision to withdraw from the Gazala position. With most of his armour gone, what else could Ritchie do? Under cover of the 1st Armoured Division and the R.A.F., the 50th (Northumbrian) Division and Pienaar's 1st South African Division were withdrawn and succeeded in joining Gen. Ritchie to the east of Tobruk. The South Africans, covered by the 50th, got away first. Then the 50th, finding the way blocked by the enemy to the east, actually marched west, right through the Italian lines; then, wheeling round Bir Hacheim, they swerved north-east and reached the British lines almost intact, bringing with them many prisoners. For 30 miles they fought their way, beating off enemy attacks, destroying enemy guns and tanks, overrunning hostile positions.

On June 18 Cairo reported that the British forces had been withdrawn from Sidi Rezegh and the Indians from El Adem, although mobile forces were continuing to harass the enemy in the area S.W. of Tobruk. All the boxes except Tobruk had fallen. These withdrawals, imposed on Ritchie by the now far superior strength of the enemy, brought the 8th Army to the Egyptian frontier. Two enemy columns followed the retreating British to the border, where they were held up near the Halfaya Pass. To the west only one British outpost remained, the bastion of Tobruk. And that, too, was soon to fall.

Fall of Tobruk

On the morning of Saturday, June 20, following a heavy air bombardment, the enemy attacked Tobruk in force, and broke through the south-east perimeter defences (manned, as it happened, by tired troops) at El Duda, forcing a gap through which tanks and lorried infantry were swiftly passed. The garrison, a mixed forced of British (201st Guards Motor Brigade, 32nd Army Tank Brigade), South Africans (H.Q., 2nd S.A. Division, 4th and 6th S.A. Infantry Brigades), and Indians (11th Indian Infantry Bde.), commanded by the South African General, H. B. Klopper, put up a fierce resistance; but the tanks of the German 15th Armoured and the 90th Light Divisions, supported by the Italian Trieste and Ariete Divisions, carried everything before them. The assault was launched at 5.20 a.m.; by 9.0 a.m., according to the German account, Rommel's forces had broken through the minefields into the inner ring. Rommel himself led the tempestuous advance in his light armoured car, and by 11.30 a.m. he was eight miles inside the perimeter. By 4.45 p.m. the

main positions were in German hands, although the guns were still firing from the batteries near the coast. Fort Pilastrino surrendered early on Sunday morning; but here and there in the outer ring, and in Tobruk itself, fighting continued until late on Sunday. Klopper had hoped to fight his way out to the west, but only a lucky few, including some of the Coldstream Guards, succeeded in getting through the enemy. "At 7 a.m. this morning," said a special announcement issued in Rome that Sunday afternoon, "a British officer presented himself at the Headquarters of our 21st Army Corps to offer the surrender of the fortress of Tobruk in the name of the Commander. Axis troops had occupied fortress, town, and harbour. 25,000 prisoners, including several Generals, have surrendered."

For 517 days, from January 21, 1941, to June 21, 1942, the 8th Army had held Tobruk. Now, at last, this persistent thorn in the flesh of the German troops on the road to Egypt had been plucked out. From Berlin came the news that Gen. Rommel had been promoted Field-Marshal.

Tobruk's fall was a heavy blow, all the heavier because it had been so unexpected. Mr. Churchill received the news as he went into President Roosevelt's room in the White House. "I hope the House will realize what a bitter pang this was to me . . . " he said. It was utterly unexpected, he made it plain later, not only by the public, but by the War Cabinet, the General Staffs, by General Auchinleck and the High Command of the Middle East. Only on the night before its capture General Auchinleck had telegraphed that the garrison was adequate, the defences in good order, and 90 days' supplies were available for the troops.

Shortly before Tobruk's fall the 8th Army was reported to be holding strong fortified positions on the Libyan-Egyptian frontier. But it soon proved that this Halfaya line was quite insufficient to hold up the enemy for 10 days or a fortnight, as had been hoped. On June 25 G.H.Q. Cairo announced that the British troops had been withdrawn from Sollum and Sidi Omar. That same day General Auchinleck assumed personal command of the 8th Army, in succession to General Ritchie. Three days later heavy fighting was reported to be taking place near Mersa Matruh—on the line, that is, that had been the front in September 1940 before Wavell assumed the offensive.





OPPOSING COMMANDERS IN LIBYAN STRUGGLE

The top photograph, of Field-Marshals Karl Kesselring (Luftwaffe) and Erich Rommel (Afrika Korps), was taken in June 1942 when the Axis armies were at the zenith of their success—having advanced far into Egypt. The other photograph shows General Sir Claude Auchinleck watching British troops withdrawing from Mersa Matruh. After taking over from Ritchie, General Auchinleck constantly toured the battle area.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press

In the fighting about Mersa Matruh a gallant part was stated to have been played by the New Zealand Division, who were rushed there from Palestine. "The Government of New Zealand agreed to the fullest use being made of their troops," said Mr. Churchill in his speech of July 2, "whom they have not withdrawn or weakened in any way. They have sent them into battle under the command of the heroic Freyberg, and they have acquitted themselves in a manner equal to all their former records."

Loss of Mersa Matruh

That Mersa Matruh, for long the advanced British base, had been evacuated was announced in Cairo on June 29; the Axis claimed that it was taken by storm by the Italian 21st Army Corps, preceded by the 7th Bersaglieri Regt. and units of the German 90th Division, and that 6,000 prisoners had been taken. This was scouted in London, however, since it had never been the Allied intention to stand a siege in the town.

The enemy continued his advance along the coast, through Fuka and El Daba to El Alamein, only some 60 miles from Alexandria. Here, with his left flank resting on the Qattara Depression and his right on the Mediterranean, Auchinleck, after having issued a spirited Order of the Day, made the determined stand that he had planned.

The 50th Division was singled out by the War Office in a later communiqué for special commendation.

"Their toughness and discipline saved more than themselves. At Alamein they helped to halt the German and Italian divisions who were pushing on, flushed with success and expecting an easy conquest of Egypt. During those weeks from late June a few tired formations saved the world from disaster. Before the end of August the Eighth Army, reinforced and re-equipped, was itself again and invincible. But for many days a few thousand Indians, South Africans, Australians, and New Zealanders and what was left of the British 1st and 7th Armoured Divisions and the 50th alone barred the way to the Nile. In each phase of the struggle the 50th enhanced their reputation as dashing and determined fighters."

Rommel attacked in strength on July 2, but the British counter-attacked his flank with their armoured and mobile units, and after heavy fighting the enemy withdrew, leaving the El Alamein positions intact. Although they had suffered the loss of over 80,000 men, the 8th Army were still unbeaten. Time was to prove that this was the farthest east and the

nearest to the Nile Valley that the Afrika Korps and its Italian auxiliaries were to reach.

Through July the communiqués were chiefly concerned with local offensives made by the 8th Army, resulting in the capture of the Tel el Eisa ridge in the northern sector of the now rapidly stabilising front and the Ruweisat ridge to the south.

During August there was patrol activity and artillery exchanges, but until the end of the month the lull continued. Then, at 2 a.m. on August 31, the Afrika Korps attacked the 8th Army's positions in the neighbourhood of El Heimemat, a little 200-ft.-high peak on the edge of the Qattara Depression. For several days fighting continued; but, having made no real progress, and being hard pressed by British armoured and mobile forces, Rommel started his withdrawal on September 4. Then it was given out in Germany that his offensive had been merely a reconnaissance in force. Yet, as Cairo pointed out, the entire Afrika Korps, comprising the 90th Light Division and two Panzer divisions, and a large part of the Italian 20th Motorized Corps, had been flung into the battle. That the offensive had not succeeded was largely due to the fierceness of the Allied air attack. German prisoners admitted that shortly before the offensive Rommel had told them that they would soon be in Cairo.

Rommel Attacks El Heimemat

Some months later, in Parliament, Mr. Churchill told the story of the "American tanks, the admirable Shermans" which had gone to reinforce the 8th Army. On the dark day that the news came of the fall of Tobruk the Premier was with President Roosevelt in the White House. The President took a large number of the Shermans—"their very best tanks, just coming out of the factories"—back from the American troops to whom they had just been delivered. Placed on board ship in the early days of July, they sailed direct to Suez under American escort. The President also sent a large number of the 105-mm. self-propelled guns. One ship in the precious convoy was sunk, but immediately, without being asked, the United States replaced it with another ship carrying an equal number of these weapons.



Sergt. KEITH ELLIOT, V.C.
Fifth New Zealander to win the V.C. in the present war. Awarded for outstanding personal courage and fearless leadership in desert fighting near Ruweisat on July 15, 1942. He was wounded four times.



Pte. A. H. WAKENSHAW, V.C.
Near Mersa Matruh on June 27, 1942, he loaded and fired his 2-pounder anti-tank gun, although his left arm had been blown off, and disabled a German mobile gun before being killed by a direct hit.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; G.P.U.

Tobruk was raided on the night of September 13 by a British Combined Operations force; and on the same night desert forces of the 8th Army, having penetrated some hundreds of miles within the enemy lines, raided Benghazi and Barce, destroying many Axis aircraft on the ground and inflicting severe casualties on enemy personnel and motor transport. Then on the night of September 15 Jalo oasis, in the desert, more than 200 miles south of Benghazi, was successfully raided. All the forces engaged in these daring thrusts returned safely to their bases. On September 30 British infantry made a limited advance in the central sector of the Alamein front, and the local gains were consolidated. Then once again followed from Cairo a series of "No change" bulletins.

But changes, great changes, were in the offing. Since August 18 General the Hon. Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander had been Commander-in-Chief Middle East, in succession to General Auchinleck, while General Ritchie's place as Commander of the 8th Army was now taken by Lieut.-General B. L. Montgomery; these appointments were among the direct results of Mr. Churchill's visit to Cairo, itself due to his being "far from satisfied with the conditions reported to prevail in the 8th Army." It had been intended that Ritchie's successor should be Lt.-Gen. W. H. E. Gott, but he had been killed on the way to Cairo a few days before when the plane in which he was a passenger was shot down by enemy aircraft. Maj.-Gen. H. Lumsden became commander of the 10th Army Corps.

Changes in British Command

New men were now at the helm, with new opportunities; vast reinforcements and vast supplies of weapons of the very latest description were being poured into Egypt. As the October days passed there was intense activity in the narrowing arm of desert that ended at Alamein. On October 23, to the tune of a terrific barrage, the 8th Army scrambled out of its trenches and set out on the long but unbrokenly successful trail which was to end in triumph a little over six months later at the gates of Tunis.

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL SURVEYS EGYPTIAN BATTLEFRONT

In August 1942, on his way to Moscow and again on his return journey, the British Premier made a stay in Egypt, where he visited forward areas of the Eighth Army and held military conferences. Here he is seen with (left) General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander, newly appointed C.-in-C. Middle East, and (right) General Montgomery, G.O.C. Eighth Army.

Photo British Official: Crown Copyright



OPERATIONS IN MADAGASCAR: MAY 5 TO NOVEMBER 5, 1942

Early in 1942 it became clear that there was a considerable risk of Japanese forces taking possession of Madagascar; in consequence, the Allies decided to forestall this possibility by landing troops and establishing control of the island. Here is the story of the first operations, in May 1942, and those which subsequently became necessary in September and resulted in the complete occupation

It was in February 1942, when Japan was overrunning Malaya, the Philippines and the East Indies and threatening Burma and India and Australia, that Britain planned an expedition to secure Madagascar. The ultimate fate of this strategically vital island if it were left under the administration of the weak and vacillating government of Vichy France, and taking into consideration Japan's territorial ambitions, was certain: it would fall to Japan.

Madagascar (see map in page 2244) is 900 miles long, 350 miles across at its widest part and, including the Comoro islands which are under the same administration, comprises an area of about 240,000 sq. miles. Larger than France itself and four times the size of England and Wales, it is the third largest island in the world. The Mozambique Channel separates it from the mainland of Africa. With its wild ruggedness, its inhospitable coasts fringed with reefs and sandbanks, its wide range of climate, it is no soldiers' paradise. Its peoples, numbering 3,798,000, and including 25,000 French and assimilated French and 14,000 foreigners, are chiefly Malagasy, the collective denomination of some 18 tribes. All come under the jurisdiction of the Governor-General, who in early 1942 was M. Annet, a personality strongly pro-Vichy.

In mid-February, 1942, Allied anxiety regarding the future status of the island was evidenced by conversations between Mr. Sumner Welles and the Vichy representative in Washington, M. Henri-Haye, following reports that the French administration in Madagascar was prepared to allow the Japanese to establish themselves there. M. Henri-Haye stated that his Government "had decided to protect the island against any incursion." A similar assurance was given by Vichy to Admiral Leahy (American Ambassador) on March 10.

Madagascar's strategic importance was obvious. It possessed in Diego Suarez one of the finest harbours in the world, and a fortified naval station. There were also a number of deep inshore anchorages at Tamatave, Majunga, Tulear, Nossi-Bé and Mayotte (the last in the near-by Comoro Islands), and some 150 airfields and landing grounds. Madagascar lay across the United Nations' sea communications with Egypt and the Eighth and Ninth Armies, with India, China, Ceylon and Russia (via Persia). Japanese occupation, once secured, would have given the enemy a large and invaluable base from which to attack and possibly disrupt supplies travelling by these routes. Indeed, if this risk had been allowed to materialize, such attacks could conceivably have cut Allied communications altogether in this vital part of the globe. In Japanese hands Madagascar would have constituted a powerful and ever growing threat both to South Africa and to India.

Politically as well as strategically Allied occupation of Madagascar was a necessity. So obvious was this move that even calm and imperturbable Mr. Churchill amusingly confessed to a feeling of great anxiety about Allied intentions in his speech of May 10, 1942:

> "While the troops were at sea," he said, "I must tell you that I felt a shiver every time I saw the word 'Madagascar' in the newspapers. All those articles with diagrams and maps, showing how very important it was for us to take Madagascar and forestall the Japanese and be there first for once, as they say, filled me with apprehension. . . ."

As Mr. Churchill also stated in his speech, it was the feeble and dishonourable drifting or connivance by Vichy in Indo-China that had injured the Allied cause so much (permitting a land attack to be launched on Malaya via Indo-China and Thailand), a recurrence of which in Madagascar might easily have had fatal consequences for the Allies.

Here then was the strategic and political background to the British occupation of the island. The expedition comprised (according to the official announcement) a naval force of two cruisers, four destroyers, troop transports and



LEADERS OF THE MADAGASCAR EXPEDITION

Rear-Admiral E. N. Syfret, R.N. (left), commanded the British Naval forces which took part in the assault on Diego Suarez on May 5, 1942. Later in the year he was appointed Acting Vice-Admiral and advanced from C.B. to K.C.B. The leader of our land forces was Maj.-General R. G. Sturges, Royal Marines (centre), who was created C.B. in 1942.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



CAPTURE OF DIEGO SUAREZ, MAY 5–7, 1942

This map shows the points of landing on the west coast on May 5, and the surprise attack by 50 Royal Marines from the battleship 'Ramillies' at 8 p.m. on the 6th, which took the French defences in the rear. Antsirane surrendered at 1 a.m. on May 7, and the harbour forts an hour later; in the afternoon the batteries at Oranges followed suit. The French submarine 'Le Héros' and the sloop 'D'Entrecasteaux' were sunk in Diego Suarez harbour. Distance between Ambararata and Diego Suarez is about 13 miles; from Raihabe to Antsirane about 17 miles.

Drawn by E. G. Lambert; by courtesy of "The Sphere"

invasion craft, with air support from the aircraft-carriers "Illustrious" and "Indomitable," all under the command of Rear-Admiral E. N. Syfret, and a military force commanded by Major-Gen. R. G. Sturges, C.B. (Royal Marines). Later the Admiralty allowed it to be stated that the battleship "Ramillies" took part. The force arrived at Courrier Bay in the extreme north of the island in the early hours of May 5, 1942. At 4.30 a.m. the assault began according to plan. The first news of this landing was given in a joint Admiralty and War Office communiqué on the same morning, and stated that the Governor-General of Madagascar, M. Annet, had rejected a British seven-hour ultimatum and had announced his intention to fight to the end.

Vichy and Axis reaction followed familiar lines. Berlin audaciously described it as a "breach of international law." Tokyo naïvely asserted that Japan had never had any intention of occupying Madagascar; while Pétain, denouncing this latest example of "British aggression," sent a message to M. Annet urging resistance in Madagascar's "tragic hour." Admiral Darlan also sent a message to the Vichy forces in the island, declaring that once again the British, instead of fighting their enemies, sought the easiest path of attacking a French colony. "Fight to the limit of your possibilities," he said, "and make the British pay dearly for their act of highway robbery. . . ."

The same day (May 5, 1942) America signified her approval of Britain's action in a statement by the U.S. State Dept., and declared that the United States and Great Britain were in accord that Madagascar would be restored to France after the war or at any time that the occupation of the island was no longer essential to the common cause of the United Nations. Three days later the British Foreign Office issued the following statement:

"Simultaneously with the first landing of British troops at Courrier Bay, and long before any active resistance was encountered the British force commanders, on the instructions of H.M. Government, made the following proposals to the French authorities in Madagascar in return for their cooperation, and in order to avoid bloodshed.

They informed the authorities that Madagascar would remain French and, after the war, be restored to French sovereignty. They further stated that if members of the civil and military organizations declared their intentions to cooperate with the United Nations, their salaries and pensions would be provided from funds to be made available for that specific purpose.

A guarantee of repatriation was given to civil and military personnel who did not wish to cooperate with the United Nations and could claim the right to reside in Metropolitan France. Repatriation would take place when ships were available.

The force commanders also announced the intention of the United Nations not only to restore their trade with the island, but to extend to Madagascar every economic benefit accorded to French territories which had already opted for the Allies.

A condition laid down by the commanders was that no destruction of civil and military installations, war stores, armaments, and other supplies must be carried out by the French on the island."

In Allied countries and throughout the Empire Britain's preventive action was warmly welcomed.

Brilliant and Ingenious Attack

The attack, as ingeniously planned as it was brilliantly carried out, envisaged a combined three-phase assault by the Army and the Naval Forces, with the support of the Fleet Air Arm. (The assault landing craft were under the command of Captain G. A. Garnons-Williams, D.S.C., R.N., of the Combined Operations Command.) The assault revealed the military value of our new tactics of "combined operations," as then hardly tested on a large scale. Having cleared the sea approaches of the anticipated mines, the ships moved in, though not without the loss of H.M. corvette "Auricula" (Lieut.-Cmdr. S. L. Maybury), with a small number of casualties. At 4.30 a.m. No. 5 Commando and a company of the East Lancashires landed at Courrier Bay. Overpowering the coast-defence battery at Windsor Castle, they

proceeded with great dash and vigour to the town of Diego Suarez, which fell to them just after 4 p.m.

Meanwhile two diversionary attacks (one air and one naval) had been completed successfully. The aircraft carriers "Illustrious" and "Indomitable" carried five types of aircraft: Swordfish and Albacore torpedo-bomber-reconnaissance two-three-seater aircraft, Fulmar two-seater fighters, and Martlet and Sea Hurricane single-seat fighters. This tactically compact sea/air force provided air cover for the landing force.

The airport of Antsirane was attacked at dawn on the first day. Four aircraft that escaped this assault were later shot down by Fleet Air Arm fighter patrols.

With torpedoes, bombs, and machine-guns the British naval aircraft attacked a sloop, a submarine, and an armed merchant ship off Antsirane; the sloop escaped that day, but was set on fire and sunk next morning. The aircraft bombed a shore gun position, and dropped leaflets demanding the surrender of other shore batteries and the town of Antsirane, and made a diversionary parachute attack.

Complete air mastery was established, and this materially aided the speedy capture of the important port of Diego Suarez and the creation of the first bridgehead on the island of Madagascar—for Antsirane, facing Diego Suarez across a narrow channel, was the decisive strategic key to the area concerned.

The Naval diversion had started at about 4.40 a.m. by the firing of smoke and star shells at the most probable landing place on the E. coast, which was Ambodivahibe Bay, S.E. of Antsirane.

South of Courrier Bay the main forces had by this time effected a successful landing (in Ambararata Bay), experiencing little opposition. These forces—the assault brigade—comprised the East and South Lancashire Regiments, the Royal Welch Fusiliers and the Royal Scots Fusiliers. Landing at three different points, they encountered considerable operational difficulties, caused by a heavy swell, in getting the armoured vehicles and tanks ashore.

Having secured the beaches, the assault brigade pressed forward along the road to Antsirane, some 20 miles away to the east, supported by Bren-gun carriers and tanks and dragging their stores and ammunition in handcarts.



BRITISH LANDING CRAFT APPROACHES DIEGO SUAREZ

The assault on Diego Suarez began at 4.30 a.m. on May 5, 1942. A seven-hour ultimatum was tendered to M. Annet, the Governor-General, but he elected to 'fight to the end.' Resistance ceased, however, on May 7 and Admiral Syfret was able to take his warships into the fine harbour. Top, one of the British landing parties nearing the shore; below, men of No. 5 Commando resting in a street at Diego Suarez after their overland dash to occupy the town.

Photos, Keystone; L.N.A.



On to Antsirane

Opposition encountered about 11 a.m. was overcome by two companies of infantry supported by howitzers and three tanks. Towards mid-day other drawbacks made themselves felt in the form of exhausting heat, clouds of dust, and a multitude of insects. The roads, too, were little more than blind tracks, with dense foliage each side shutting out any view of the countryside. After a few hours' rest the main advance continued. After some slight resistance, our troops found themselves under severe fire from concealed French 75s and machine-guns at the main positions of the Vichy forces, some three miles from Antsirane. This, combined with an anti-tank ditch and the approach of nightfall, compelled our troops to halt, with the issue undecided.

Dawn the next morning (May 6) saw the launching of our next attack on a three-battalion front, the aim now being the storming of the main positions and the capture of Antsirane. Resistance here was so stiff that little headway was made, although the East Lancashire Regiment gained an important tactical success which was not known at British H.Q. until it was too late to exploit it. Indeed, the total "disappearance" of this regiment gave rise for a time to the

gravest concern regarding its safety! Despite a strong frontal attack, numerous difficulties made it essential to await the arrival of the support brigade—the incomplete observation for our guns due to smoke from innumerable bush fires; the inadequacy of our fire-power to knock out enemy guns, which were excellently sited; and the heat and the dust, to which the British troops were not yet accustomed. This brigade comprised part of the Royal Scots Fusiliers, the Northamptonshire Regiment and the Seaforth Highlanders. Working under hazardous and exhausting conditions, these troops had meanwhile landed—on the same beaches—with their stores, equipment, tanks and guns, and during the day had caught up with the assault brigade.

A supplementary plan was now extemporized, in which a night assault was to begin at 8.30, preceded by artillery and air bombardment.

Marines' Diversionary Attack

A diversionary attack by 50 Royal Marines from H.M.S. "Ramillies" was planned at the rear of the town. Dead on time the main attack was launched. By 11 p.m. our forces had penetrated undetected between the two forts guarding Antsirane and had reached a position some 1,800 yards beyond the tank ditch and the trench system. This success they announced by firing rockets. They were followed quickly and closely by the rest of the forces, which pressed forward to reach the main harbour, meeting little opposition. By 1 a.m. (May 7) Antsirane had fallen.



OCCUPATION OF TAMATAVE, SEPTEMBER 18, 1942

After a British envoy, sent ashore at Tamatave to secure a peaceful occupation of this, Madagascar's principal port, was fired upon, our Naval forces directed a few shells at the main defences. This brought about a speedy surrender. Above, British troops disembarking from a destroyer afterwards.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Much of the credit for this brilliant operation must go to the 50 "sea-soldiers" detailed to make the diversionary attack. With them on board the destroyer "Anthony" made the circuit of the northern tip of Madagascar, and then dashed into Antsirane harbour at 8 o'clock, in pitch darkness, and under extremely heavy gunfire which she returned. Arriving alongside a wharf, the Marines tumbled ashore. Within half an hour they were in possession of many strategic points, including the strongly held barracks and the magazine. They sustained one casualty. The Marines are said to have created a "disturbance in the town out of all proportion to their numbers." Their swift success prevented heavy street fighting which might have caused serious damage and heavy losses.

Faced with the collapse of Antsirane, Fort Caimans and Fort Bellevue surrendered at 2 p.m., followed in the afternoon by the coast-defence batteries on the Oranges peninsula (see map, p. 2240).

Capture of Diego Suarez

It was a triumphant moment when, a little later, Admiral Syfret's warships steamed majestically into Diego Suarez harbour. Thus, at an expense of only 500 casualties (fewer than 100 of whom were killed), one corvette and a few naval planes, Britain secured Diego Suarez and all the peninsula which strategically goes with the naval base. French losses in man-power, according to Colonel Carbon, Vichy officer commanding the French forces in this area, were 650 casualties, of which 150 represented men killed.



AFTER THE SURRENDER OF MAJUNGA

In September it became clear that nothing but the complete occupation of Madagascar would put a stop to opposition and intrigues inspired by Vichy. So on the 10th British forces landed at three points on the west coast. No opposition was met with at Morondava. At Majunga, after some resistance, the town surrendered; a French officer is seen driving round the streets with the white flag.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

The Allies' hope that their successful occupation of the naval base of Diego Suarez would bring about the cessation of French resistance elsewhere on Madagascar was foredoomed to failure. That the task of occupying the entire island was forced reluctantly on the Allies was made clear by a British Government announcement on September 10, 1942. This stated that since the Vichy attitude made it clear that their essential requirements could not be achieved by peaceful means, further military operations would have to be undertaken on the island. It also reiterated many of the statements made by the Foreign Office on May 8. This new policy received the instant approval of the United States.

Further Measures Necessary

Following the storming of Diego Suarez there had been a comparative lull in military operations for some weeks, British action taking mainly the form of air reconnaissance and the consolidation of positions. On July 9 Mayotte, the principal island of the Comoro group some 200 miles west of Diego Suarez, was secured by British Commandos supported by detachments of the Royal Marines and East African Rifles. Mayotte guarded the north end of the Mozambique Channel, through which passed Allied convoys to the Middle East and Persia (for Russia).

An examination of the next phase of British strategy (designed to secure the occupation of all the island) reveals that its fundamental conceptions were based on a model not dissimilar to the Japanese methods which had achieved so much for the enemy in Malaya. In broad outline British strategy took the form of a two-pronged advance down the coasts from Diego Suarez, intended primarily to cover the flanks of bigger operations farther south. Amphibious operations, again including the use of Commando units, were planned to seize all important ports, and then to thrust inland to occupy towns and points of strategical value. On September 10, 1942, this phase of the offensive began with widespread landings on the west coast. The forces, comprising British, South and East African troops under the command of Gen. Sir William Platt, and supported by the South African Air Force, took the island of Nossi-Bé in the north, occupied Majunga, made an unopposed landing at Morondava (some 690 miles south of Diego Suarez), and thence began an advance inland towards Mahabo, on the Morondava–Ambositra road. Simultaneously troops at Diego Suarez moved southward towards Ambanja



BRITISH SAPPERS RESTORE COMMUNICATIONS

The advance of our columns from Tamatave to Tananarive, the capital of Madagascar, was much hampered by demolitions and road blocks. Top, near Brickaville, a blown-up railway bridge over the Vohitra river meant the use of a ferry till the crossing was restored; a light engine being taken across. Below, sappers in the leading truck examine another bridge between Tamatave and Brickaville.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





BRITISH OPERATIONS AGAINST MADAGASCAR, MAY-SEPT., 1942

On May 5 a combined force attacked Diego Suarez (see special map in p. 2240), which was occupied on the 7th. In September it became necessary to control the entire island, and British forces landed at Majunga and Morondava (Sept. 10). Another British force landed at Tamatave on the 18th. Tananarive, the capital, was taken by troops from Majunga on the 23rd. South Africans landed at Tulear, in the south, on Sept. 29 and drove north-eastwards. On November 5, at the request of the Governor-General, M. Annet, an armistice was signed.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

on the west coast, and to Vohemar on the east coast.

By September 12 the troops advancing down the west coast had occupied Ambanja, despite bridge demolitions and minor opposition. A successful landing in the Maromandia area a few days later, combined with a further advance by the troops against stiffer opposition, sufficed to end all resistance between these places. Hemmed in, the Vichy forces surrendered. From here, however, the advance was slowed up by extensive demolitions and road blocks, but nevertheless the British forces had entered Befotaka by September 21. Next day saw the completion of the major task assigned to them when, occupying Antsohihy, they linked up with a column which had proceeded north from Majunga, thereby controlling the Diego Suarez-Majunga road.

On the east coast British troops within two days had occupied Vohemar, and were advancing southward. Although opposition was relatively slight the enemy's delaying actions, the heavy rains, and topographical difficulties restricted the speed of our troops, so that Sahambava, some 150 miles south of Diego Suarez, was not occupied until September 21, and Antalaha on the 23rd.

The landing at Morondava—the speed and effectiveness of which took the enemy completely by surprise—was mainly designed as a diversionary attack. No opposition was encountered and not a shot was fired. Pushing inland, within a few days Mahabo, on the road to Ambositra, had been occupied by South African troops.

Meanwhile further troops were being speedily landed at Majunga, which No. 5 Commando had taken within an hour. Within a few hours of the



SERGEANT WALASI, M.M.

At a parade in Tananarive Lieut.-General Sir William Platt (left), G.O.C. British Forces, decorated three African askaris with the Military Medal for gallantry during the advance on the Madagascan capital. Here Sergeant Walasi, of the Nyasaland Battalion, is receiving the medal.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright

capture of the port—the second largest in Madagascar—armoured cars were racing inland along the metalled road towards the capital, Tananarive. Kanoro Bridge, nearly 100 miles south of Majunga, was reached the same evening (September 10). But the first real objective was the 1,600-foot suspension bridge over the Betsiboka river, about 114 miles from the capital. Finding that the central span had been dropped into the water by cutting the cables, our forces immediately joined battle with the defenders, killing ten and capturing 47 against British casualties of only four wounded: the bridge was taken. On September 13 Maevatanana fell. Three days later the Governor-General, M. Annet, announced that he was sending plenipotentiaries to the British Commander to "find means by which we can cease fighting with honour," and to arrange for negotiations leading to an armistice. Owing, it was thought, to the intervention of Vichy at German dictation, the British terms for an armistice were rejected as "unacceptable" the next day (September 17). The occupation of Andribe, on the Majunga-Tananarive road, took place the same day.

From this point events moved rapidly. Following the rejection of the British terms, on September 18 a strong British force arrived off Tamatave, Madagascar's largest port and connected with the capital by rail and road. Its capture, described by James Cooper, Daily Express correspondent on the spot, as a "conversation piece," took only three minutes. At 5 a.m. the invading force had rounded the great reef near the port. A "conversation" (i.e., an exchange of messages) then took place, during which it rapidly became evident that the Governor of the town, M. Lenne, was merely playing for time. The end of the "conversation" ran thus:

Naval Commander (6.40 a.m.): "If you compel me to bombard, hoist a white flag on Government House and on Tanio Point lighthouse when you feel you can surrender with honour."

M. Lenne: No reply.

Naval Commander (6.58 a.m.): "Do you require extension of time limit? Otherwise will open fire at 7.30."

M. Lenne (7.5 a.m.): "Yes, we require extension of time."

Naval Commander (7.15 a.m.): "I am sending naval envoy in boat. If you fire on him I shall bombard."

Here the story is completed by the correspondent referred to above:

"The test came at 7.35, when the envoy boat left. Four hundred yards from the shore they found trouble. I saw tracer bullets splash near the boat, which was unarmed. The captain and the crew ducked and turned the boat round. The naval commander shouted, 'Here we go!' That was at 7.48. We gave the motor-launch time to get to safety, and at 7.52 we opened fire. Inside three minutes white flags were hoisted, and at 8.2 women were cycling along the promenade again."

By 9.4 the Union Jack flew from the Tanio flagstaff, Tamatave was taken, and a new and formidable threat to Tananarive was shaping itself.

Advance to the Capital

In Tamatave the British troops were received with great friendliness and, thanks to the speed with which the town was captured, found the docks, airport and railway intact. Taking full advantage of this diversion, the British troops on the Majunga–Tananarive road continued their advance towards the capital. Fighting a successful engagement with Vichy forces south of Andribe, by September 21 they had occupied Ankazobe. The fall of this important town coincided with that of Brickaville, the road and rail junction between Tamatave and the capital. All the 18 bridges between Tamatave and Brickaville had to be rebuilt before our men could advance. On the 23rd the village of Mahitsy, 15 miles from Tananarive, was taken by the Imperial troops advancing from the north.

The next stage, the capture of



DESTROYERS COVERED THE SEPTEMBER LANDINGS

Early in September 1942, British, South African and East African forces landed at a number of points on the west coast of Madagascar to secure control of the island. Here is the scene on one of the British destroyers as her 4.7-inch guns fire at a shore target during the operations.

Photo, Central Press



ROYAL AIR FORCE LYSANDERS OVER MADAGASCAR

Much of the success of the British campaign was due to tireless and many-sided operations of a flight of R.A.F. Lysanders. In the initial stages they carried out reconnaissance and anti-submarine patrols: later, during the southern advance, they gave close-bombing support.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Tananarive, was not expected to be accomplished easily. On a 4,000-foot plateau, to which the road rises through difficult country in 26 miles, Tananarive was situated in the best defended area of the island. Nevertheless, despite strong resistance, it was taken on September 23, our troops (the Majunga contingent) entering the city to the cheers of the people. Few important Vichy officials were captured, the majority of them, including M. Annet, having fled before the arrival of our troops. Immediately on his arrival Gen. Platt issued a seven-point proclamation :



FRENCH NATIONAL COMMITTEE TAKES OVER

On December 14, 1942, Britain signed an agreement with the French National Committee in London regarding the administration of Madagascar. The British occupation was to come to an end as soon as possible after the arrival there of General Legentilhomme (left), appointed High Commissioner on November 11. Centre, General de Gaulle signs the agreement ; right, Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary. *Photo, Barratts*

1. The establishment of military jurisdiction.
2. The British Command to be responsible for the maintenance of law and order and to respect local customs.
3. Local officials to remain at their posts under orders of the military authorities.
4. Crimes to be punished by military tribunals.
5. Local civil jurisdiction to continue, though temporarily suspended.
6. People to return to their normal occupations.
7. The French flag to continue to be flown in Tananarive.

On September 25 the Foreign Office in London announced that, though subject temporarily to military jurisdiction, French sovereignty over Madagascar would remain unaffected.

But the fight was not over. On September 29 British columns moving east from the capital made contact with the column advancing from Brickaville, thus securing control of the Tananarive–Tamatave railway. Another force advancing south-west occupied Behenjy. In the morning of the same day amphibious South African forces had landed at Tulear, in the south-west of the island. It was taken without firing a shot. The biggest battle of the whole campaign, however, had yet to be fought. Our troops, advancing from Behenjy, had occupied both Sambaina and Antsirabe meeting negligible resistance. Farther south these troops had linked up with others who had advanced 230 miles from Tamatave, thereby bringing nearly all the Madagascar railway system (over 450 miles) under British control. October 14 had seen the fall of Ambositra, after a stiff fight in which some 170 prisoners had been captured.

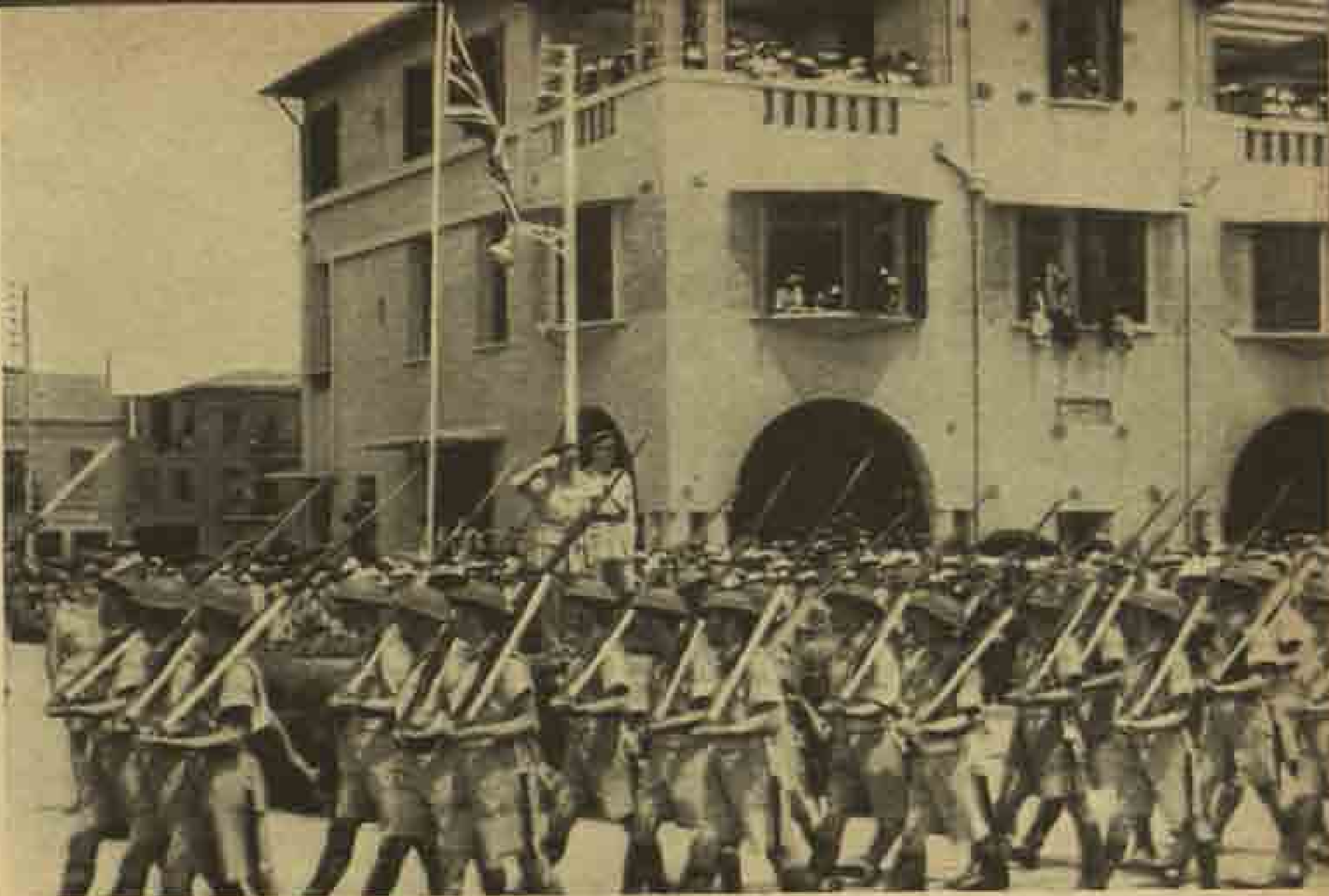
Then came the epic of the Ivato crossroads. The battlefield was a six-mile valley through a 5,000-foot plateau running from south of Ambositra to Ivato. Its rocky ridges and ravines were indeed a defenders' paradise. The usual spearhead tactics—that of following the road and using armoured cars flanked by infantry to nose out enemy-held positions—were deemed unsatisfactory here. While British artillery shelled the valley for two days other troops made encircling movements during the hours of darkness. In the early hours of October 19, despite heavy rain, our men were guarding all roads and positions round the defenders.

Armistice Signed

Zero hour came, and with it a mist which blanketed the whole countryside. In the ensuing confusion of our attack the Vichy forces fled, but many found themselves surrounded and surrendered. Some 800 prisoners were taken here, including a brigade commander and his staff. The end was now near. There remained Fianarantsoa as the only important town left in Vichy hands. On October 29 this, too, was taken, though not before a hard battle had been fought in which our troops took some 440 prisoners. M. Annet and General Guillemet, commander of the Vichy forces, who had been using Fianarantsoa as their H.Q., fled southwards. At 2 p.m. on November 5, an armistice—requested by M. Annet—was signed between the British and the Vichy military authorities.

It had been a strange campaign. Frequently it had been a war of spades rather than of rifles, with the local natives working hard for both sides—first for the Vichy forces and then for the British—destroying bridges, felling trees as road blocks, and then changing their allegiance as the enemy retreated and the British advanced. In different phases the campaign had been characterized by stages of unopposed progress or of mere token resistance, by brief and unexpected battles, by sudden and dramatic capitulations. Continual drawbacks were the poor communications, the pest of flies, tropic heat and soaking morning dews, and the ever-present threat of malaria.

It remained to restore to Madagascar the freedom and protection that was her right. On November 11 it was announced that General Paul Legentilhomme, Fighting French Commissioner for War, had been appointed High Commissioner for Madagascar. On December 14 an agreement was concluded in London between the British Government and the French National Committee whereby the provisional military administration of Madagascar set up after the British occupation was to come to an end upon the arrival there of the High Commissioner, when the necessary arrangements had been made for the re-establishment of the exercise of French sovereignty under his authority. In a statement at this time, General de Gaulle said that the agreement obliterated the consequences of "sad events which recently occurred in that territory."



BRITISH OCCUPATION OF MADAGASCAR'S CAPITAL

East African troops, supported by South African armoured cars and British artillery, entered Tananarive at 5 p.m. on September 23. At a parade later the G.O.C., Lieut.-General Sir William Platt, K.C.B., D.S.O., decorated three African askaris (see illus., p. 2244). He is seen above taking the salute. Below, landing transport at Majunga, occupied by British troops on September 10.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





BRITISH COMMANDOS LAND AT MAJUNGA AND TAMATAVE

British forces landed at Majunga and Morondava, and also captured the island of Nossi Bé, on September 10, 1942. Below, men of No. 5 Commando leave a transport in assault craft for the attack on Majunga, which fell within an hour. Eight days later came the call to Tamatave to surrender. The British envoy was fired upon, but after a few shells from our warships there was little further opposition; Commandos are seen at top rushing the beaches there.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



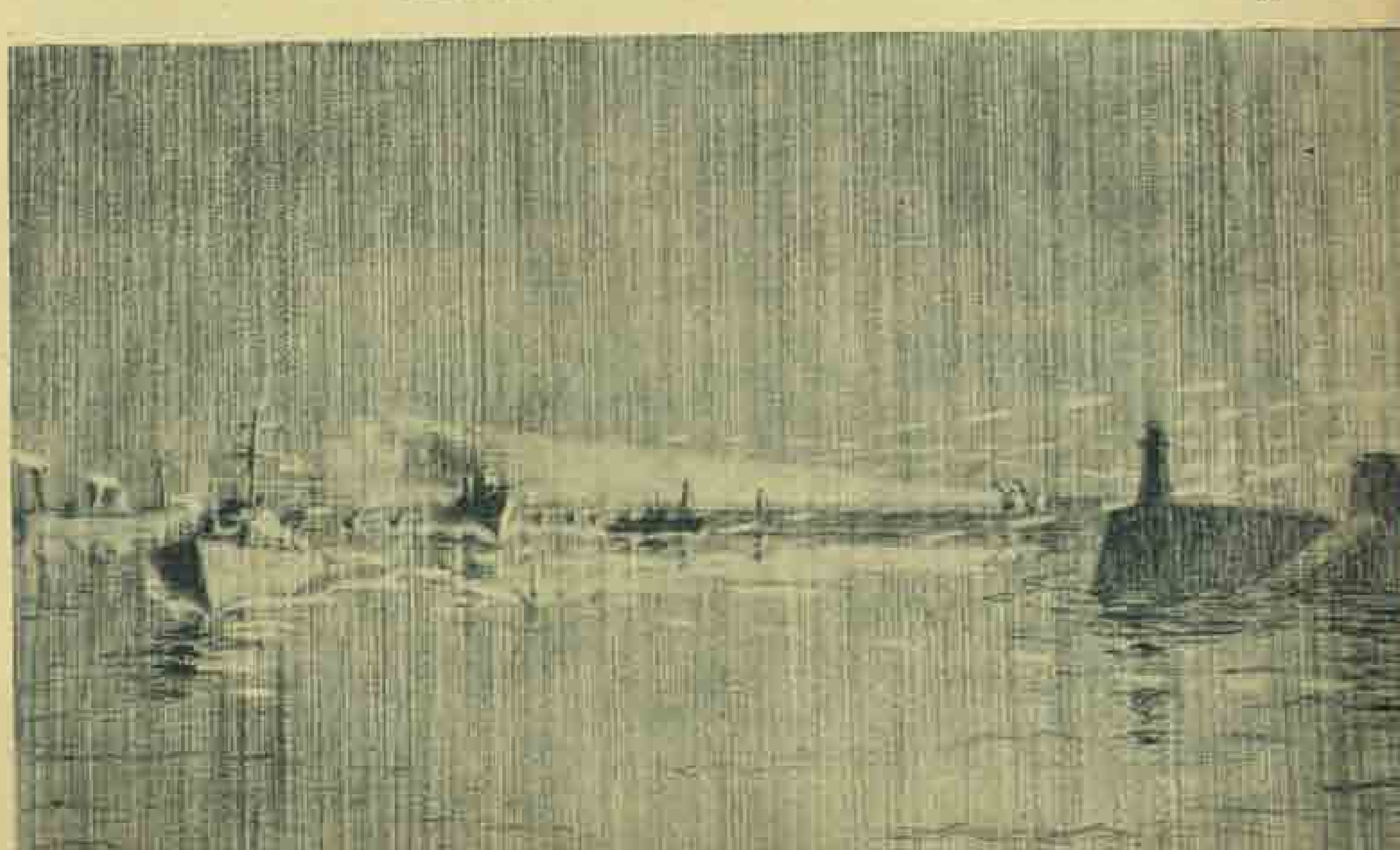


COMMANDER RYDER'S OWN IMPRESSIONS OF ST. NAZAIRE ATTACK

Below, our Naval forces return enemy fire, while preparing to land Commando troops. H.M.S. 'Campbeltown' is the larger vessel nearer the centre—then about half a mile from her objective. Above, having rammed the lock gate (see illus., p. 2256), 'Campbeltown' is discharging her crew on to an M.L. alongside. An M.T.B. is shown coming into the Old Entrance to report for orders to the M.G.B. on the left.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Commander R. E. D. Ryder, V.C., R.N.*

21.





SEVASTOPOL: PRICE OF EIGHT MONTHS' RESISTANCE

These photographs of Sevastopol after it fell into German hands on July 3, 1942, are eloquent of the heroic struggle waged by its gallant garrison and of the men and women workers who, deep down in its cellars, made and repaired weapons and provided the fighting front with what it needed. The final offensive lasted from June 2 until July 3, and was made by 14 German infantry divisions, 400 tanks and 900 aircraft. Siege artillery that included 24-inch mortars battered the fortress unceasingly. (See also illus. in pages 2260 and 2268).

Photos, Keystone; G.P.U.



BRITISH COMMANDO RAIDS OF 1942

Gordon Holman, author of this Chapter, was present at the raid on St. Nazaire, on the motor gunboat which served as the headquarters of Commander Ryder during the action. He helped to tend the wounded—'under the most difficult conditions,' said the official account—and was mentioned in dispatches. Beginning with the second raid on the Lofotens (December 26, 1941), the narrative then describes in turn the raids on Bruneval, on St. Nazaire, Boulogne and Le Touquet, and the Commandos part in the Madagascar operations

On January 1, 1942, a number of His Majesty's ships came home to a northern port. Among them were destroyers, corvettes and tankers, but one had a silhouette which would have puzzled the trained observer. Her camouflage was similar to the others; she was plentifully if not heavily armed—but the lines were hardly those of a ship of war. Those who looked curiously at her would have been surprised if they could have gone aboard. They would have found many soldiers—far outnumbering the crew—busily engaged in stacking small-arms ammunition, grenades and special equipment, ready for disembarkation. Most of the men had short-handled knives inserted into the side seam of the trousers at convenient hand level.

They might not have found it difficult to connect these men and this scene with a brief official communiqué published in their morning newspaper:

"Our light forces returned today from combined operations. We suffered no casualties nor damage, and our forces shot down one enemy aircraft. They also sank a German patrol vessel and completely disorganized the enemy's sea communications in an important area . . ."

It was, in fact, the return of the Commandos from Lofoten. It was not the first time that the British special service troops had visited the German occupation forces in the far northern islands which jut out 70 miles to the west of Norway. Their very first operation had been carried out there nine months previously. On that occasion, however, the Commandos went incognito. (See Chapter 188.)

The second Lofoten raid was the northern prong of the first big two-fisted attack by our Combined Operational forces. The southern prong was the spectacular raid on Vaagso and Maaloy (see Chapter 188). To reach the Lofoten islands in mid-winter entailed a long and hazardous journey to well within the Arctic circle. A big responsibility rested with the Royal Navy: the senior officer of the small expeditionary force was Rear-Admiral L. H. K. Hamilton, D.S.O., whose father and grandfather had also been admirals. The land forces (No. 12 Commando) were led by Lieut.-Col. S. S. Harrison, M.C., R.A.

Addressing the soldiers aboard the Commando ship before the expedition set forth, Admiral Hamilton said, "I think I can give you the opportunity to kill a few Germans, and there will be other occasions on which we may have a certain amount of fun. I am confident that you will deliver the goods in every way." During the long passage northward, when the Commando ship was escorted and screened by the light-cruiser flagship, destroyers and corvettes, the enemy was not once sighted. The weather was bitterly cold—spray from the bow-waves of the ships turned into sharp, face-stinging icicles before it could drop back into the sea. The guns had to be constantly oiled with a special thin lubricant.



SECOND RAID ON LOFOTENS

On March 3-4, 1941, Nos. 3 and 4 Commandos had landed on Vest Vaago and Ost Vaago (see p. 1888) to destroy fish-oil plants. The second landings, by No. 12 Commando, were made on December 26 in order to occupy temporarily Reine and Moskenes on the island of Moskenesoy, while another British combined force was raiding South Vaagso.

In the Commando ship there was a steady daily routine, and when the soldiers were not sharing watches with the sailors they were to be found on the troop-decks, quietly cleaning and re-cleaning their weapons. Tommy-guns, rifles and revolvers were frequently taken to pieces and put together again; hand grenades were primed and explosive charges made ready. With the Commandos were a number of Norwegian troops. Their toughness was an eye-opener even to the British special service men. Long after ice had begun to form on the decks they continued to make up their nightly "shake-downs" in the open rather than in the warm interior of the ship.

At 6 a.m. on Boxing morning (Dec. 26, 1941) the throb of the ship's engines suddenly ceased and among the Commandos, ready and waiting, there ran the words, "We are there." They said them grimly and expectantly. It was a moment they had been looking forward to for a long time. On deck it was pitch-black. Eyes which had purposely been getting used to darkness strained to get a first glimpse of the objective. One or two lights, real or imaginary, were seen, but it was impossible to say whether these belonged to ships or were on land. Then there came a dramatic discovery. The light in the mid-distance appeared to improve and one or two of those gazing intently over the dark, cold sea pointed to what they said was a high bank of mist or fog. Others looked, and then one man put into words the half-formed thoughts of the majority: "That is not fog; it's land!" he said.

He was right. The great jagged face of the Norwegian islands began to show itself distinctly. Covered with snow almost from the water's edge, it towered into the sky, the whiteness casting off its own mysterious light, brighter than the sombre dome of the heavens. With no more fuss than if they had been going ashore in England the Commando troops climbed quietly into the landing craft, the first of which slipped away towards the shore while others were still being lowered into the water. A strange sight told those remaining in the ship that the first landing had been made. As the British troops set foot ashore in the little village of Reine the news of their coming ran like wildfire before them, so that they were heralded by a rapidly extending "snake" of twinkling lights as cottage after cottage

Lofotens Again



ROYAL NAVY'S PART IN SECOND LOFOTEN RAID

The senior officer who led the expeditionary force to the Lofoten Islands on Boxing Day, 1941, was Rear-Admiral L. H. K. Hamilton, D.S.O. (below). The raid was part of the wider operations which took in also the landings on Vaagso and Maaloy, to the south. Top, anti-aircraft pom-poms on a British warship in Kirke Fjord.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



came to life. It had been one of their hopes to meet a German first, but it turned out that no Nazis were living in Reine and it was a flabbergasted Norwegian who met them and, having recovered his senses, ran hot-foot to tell the townspeople.

A rocket fired from the shore told of the successful accomplishment of the task in Reine, which included blowing up a junction-box and sections of the cable running to the mainland.

Success at Reine

The Commando ship and her escort at once moved off down the coast to Moskenes and Sorvagen, where "some more calls had to be paid." The grey daylight of the Arctic winter had come by the time these objectives were reached. It was obvious that the Germans ashore must see the ships in the bay. What they would make of them was another matter.

With the least possible delay landing parties left in the flat-bottomed boats. As they got inshore other Naval craft and Commando reinforcements waited for enemy reactions. None were to be seen, but the rocket signal of success did not come. Instead, a Navy signal lamp winked the message that it was "O.K. to enter the little harbour." Again it had been found that no Germans were in the small township of wooden houses. They had been so cold-shouldered by the inhabitants that they had taken themselves up to their observation and signal post at the light-house to live. The success signal was delayed while the Commandos, wearing their heavy Arctic kit with wind-helmet and leather mittens, stalked the enemy in his semi-mountain retreat.

Commandos and Norwegian soldiers alike were given a movingly warm reception by the inhabitants. In the midst of happy scenes, with the visitors distributing presents of coffee, chocolate, newspapers and tobacco, the expected rocket went up. A little later there was a strangely eloquent hush as the Norwegians watched a file of men descending the snow-covered hill towards the boat. Their German oppressors were leaving Lofoten, their arms raised in the face of the Commandos' tommy-guns. The enemy had offered no resistance to the British, who had walked right into the one big common room where eight Germans were. The British force then returned to Reine and entered the fjord. All the vessels, with the exception of a destroyer guard, coolly dropped anchor, not one of them more than a quarter of a mile from the shore. So settled did the force become that Commandos actually went ashore for training purposes!

On the second morning the Germans, all their northern coastal shipping with supplies for their Russian front held up, made their first attack. A seaplane dropped a bomb close to H.M.S. "Arethusa," the flagship, without doing any real damage.

'Arethusa' Escapes Bombs

Met by an A.A. barrage which rumbled around the almost land-locked fjord like a mighty thunder-storm, the Nazi plane flew off and crashed into the sea. Meanwhile, the Commandos, thoroughly disappointed that no big fighting had come their way, methodically collected German and quisling prisoners, blew up radio-stations and anything likely to be helpful to the enemy, and helped the Navy capture several enemy vessels.

When it was decided that no further useful purpose could be served by what was nothing more than a raiding force, Admiral Hamilton gave the signal and the British vessels, into which a number of loyal Norwegians had been taken as passengers, sailed for home. The whole expedition was carried out without loss.

Before we set down the record of the other fine achievements of the Commandos it may be as well to consider how this outstanding fighting force was produced. The foundation having been laid (*see* Chapter 188), Lord Louis Mountbatten took over in October 1941, and it soon became apparent that Combined Operations was to go from strength to strength, with the Commandos as its spearhead. The purpose was clear—to harass the enemy and to make the best use of our sea power in striking at him on land, up and down the broad front to which he had, by his very conquests, committed himself. The first aim was to weld the soldiers, sailors and airmen of this special force into a united body. All training was directed towards giving every man a full understanding of each branch of combined operations. The Commando soldiers, for instance, knew much about the handling of boats and landing craft. On one occasion a sergeant brought back an assault landing craft from the

other side of the Channel when all the Naval personnel had been killed or wounded.

The motto of Combined Operations, "United We Conquer," was before the Commandos throughout their arduous training. Special service troops took great pride in achievement, even during training. Frequently they were called upon to show great endurance. There were long marches—one unit marched, in fighting kit, 63 miles in less than 24 hours—with extended periods spent out in the open in all kinds of weather; special assault courses where nothing but live ammunition was used; the swimming of rivers and the climbing of high cliffs. To make the men self-reliant they were often required to find and cook their own food when carrying out exercises; the Commando soldier, unlike his brothers in the more regular formations, was frequently left without orders. He must prove himself, above all, a thinking soldier.

The assault was fundamentally the job of the Commando. The soldiers, therefore, must face an intensive training in this highly specialized form of warfare. Their nerve and physical condition had to be tested under conditions so akin to actual battle that, when they were in "the real thing," they would behave as they would on the training courses. There were long periods, however, when the training of the troops was closely linked with the Navy and R.A.F. Men from all three services then worked as a team, combining their expert knowledge of modern fighting methods on land, on sea, and in the air.

Commandos' Specialized Training

Aircraft played a very important part in the next notable raid of 1942—the attack at Bruneval, not far from Le Havre in Northern France, on the night of February 27-28. The R.A.F. and men of an Airborne division combined to make the attack, and the Navy carried out the subsequent evacuation. It was decided that a German radio-location post at Bruneval should be put out of action. It was known that the enemy attached enough importance to this post to have it defended by about a hundred men and nearly a score of strong-points. Within easy distance, too, there were very large German forces, including an armoured unit.

Plans were most carefully made. It was only by split-second timing that complete success could be achieved. The parachute troops were flown to the attack in Whitleys under the command of Wing Commander Pickard, D.S.O. The soldiers themselves were commanded by Major J. D. Frost, of the Cameron Highlanders. In the planes they sang songs until they received the signal "Prepare for action." They dropped on to snow-covered ground and, although some of the party went slightly astray, immediately attacked the radio-location station and another building. They killed six out of the first seven Germans they met and occupied the station. Flight Sergeant Cox (an R.A.F. radio expert who had volunteered to go on the raid) and Airborne division engineers at once got to work on the apparatus. Other German forces came into action, and they had to work under heavy fire. The engineers performed their task quickly and well and the parachute troops began their withdrawal to the beaches.

There were still some strong enemy posts to be overcome and lights seen moving along the road suggested that Nazi reinforcements were being rushed up. A section of troops had been sent to cover the withdrawal of the airborne men from the beaches, but when the raiders got to the cliff edge they found that the beach had not yet been occupied by our forces. They joined in the attack on the Germans who were trying to prevent them getting away, and the occupants of one enemy pillbox were completely wiped out with accurately thrown grenades. Then, at about 2.30 a.m. on the 28th, the Naval forces (under the command of Commander F. N. Cook) rushed the assault landing craft to the beach. The men who had come by air and attacked the enemy on land with complete success now began their journey back to England by sea—under heavy fire from the frustrated Germans, gathering in force on the cliff top. Despite the speed with which they had had to work, the British parachute troops found time to collect several prisoners and bring them away. Our losses were one killed, seven wounded and seven missing.

Next in sequence comes the most spectacular raid of the period—one of the most daring enterprises of this or any other war—the attack on the strongly fortified Nazi-held base of St. Nazaire. It was on the night of March 27-28, 1942, that a comparatively small Combined Operations force stormed its way



AN EXPERIMENT IN 'RADIO DISLOCATION'

This is what the official account in 'Combined Operations' facetiously termed the successful attack on the radio-location station at Bruneval on the night of February 27-28, 1942. Top, Major J. D. Frost, of the Cameronians, who led the airborne troops and won the M.C. for his bravery. Below (examining a German helmet), Wing Commander Pickard, D.S.O., D.F.C., who commanded the squadron of Whitleys which dropped our parachutists.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press







PARACHUTISTS' COUP AT BRUNEVAL

In the cabin in a shallow pit near the cliff-edge was the German radio-locator. The men guarding the post lived in the villa a little farther back. After this close-range photograph (right) had been taken by the R.A.F. a true-to-life model was constructed for the instruction of the airborne troops who made the highly successful raid on the night of February 27–28, 1942. The post (marked R.D.F.) is also shown in the top photograph near the 'isolated house.' Whitley bombers transported the airborne raiders to the scene, while our Naval forces covered their withdrawal and brought them home. The locator was destroyed, and our casualties were only one killed, seven wounded, and seven missing.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

up the estuary of the Loire and, fighting with reckless gallantry, smashed up vital military installations in a manner altogether out of proportion to the size of the force. The "Number One Objective" was the huge dry dock which gave the Germans a retreat and a repair base for their largest warships, such as did not exist elsewhere between the Straits of Dover and the Mediterranean.

The force that achieved such amazing results set off from England on March 26 and, taking a devious course, was still some way from St. Nazaire when night fell on March 27. It consisted of two covering destroyers, H.M.Ss. "Atherstone" and "Tynedale," the ex-American destroyer "Campbeltown," a motor gunboat, a motor torpedo-boat and 16 motor launches. Commander R. E. D. Ryder was in command of the Naval force, and Lieut.-Colonel A. C. Newman, of the Essex Regiment, led the Number Two Commando and special service units attached to it. The Commando troops were carried in the "Campbeltown" and all the little vessels of this miniature fleet. The two covering destroyers were detailed to patrol outside the estuary.

Leaders at St. Nazaire

At 8 p.m. on the night of March 27 the whole force, which had been moving slowly southward, suddenly swung round and headed north-east at high speed towards the mouth of the Loire. At first it was a lovely moonlight night, but as the ships approached the French coast a slight mist was encountered, such as is often found in that area at that time of the year. It had been hoped that this slight natural cover would be available. It persisted as the "Campbeltown" and her entourage raced shorewards, and was undoubtedly something of a handicap to the R.A.F. bombers, which flew in to bomb the dock area and distract the attention of the enemy. Only one or two slight fires were burning when the Naval and Commando force arrived.

The planes, however, did serve a double purpose. They certainly distracted the enemy, and the A.A. fire they compelled him to put up helped Lieut. A. R. Green, R.N., in his task as navigator. It was the magnificently accurate work of this officer which brought the force right into the mouth of the Loire shortly before 1 a.m. on the 28th. The motor gunboat, under the command of Lieut. D. M. C. Curtis, R.N.V.R., led the way, with the "Campbeltown" hard on her heels and the M.L.s strung out in two long lines astern. For several minutes after the Germans located the vessels they apparently found it hard to believe that it was an enemy force. They did not open fire, but instead challenged with signals. Then the searchlights, which had been patterning the sky, were suddenly swung down to sea level. They were bright enough to dazzle those in the small British craft, and every vessel was picked out as if it were daylight. For the first time the Germans saw the "Campbeltown," by this time well up the estuary, but still more than a mile and a half from her objective. Lying



Lieut.-Colonel A. C. NEWMAN

He led No. 2 Commando and special service units in the attack on the docks at St. Nazaire, night of March 27–28, 1942. His force (34 officers and 178 other ranks) had to be left behind; after a gallant fight against impossible odds Lieut.-Col. Newman and other survivors were taken prisoner.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

concealed on her decks were the Commando troops, who were "going all the way" with her—and a bit farther.

The sight of the destroyer galvanized the Germans into action. The first burst of tracer shells fired at her from the shore began the action, which in its closeness, intensity and fury was both numbing and awe-inspiring. "Campbeltown," specially gunned for the occasion, replied at once with a withering fire, which momentarily silenced the German positions. Then guns blazed forth from every direction. The whole channel was canopied with green and red tracers from the shores; enemy flak ships spat fire at point-blank range; pillboxes on the moles seemed to complete the circle and, from the sea, our own fire went back with equal intensity. The motor gunboat rushed past a German flak ship which was almost directly in the path of the "Campbeltown." For a moment both vessels concentrated their guns on the flak ship and she burst into flames.

"Campbeltown" Prepares to Ram

Lt.-Cmdr. S. H. Beattie, commanding the "Campbeltown," handling his ship with a superb indifference to the terrific cannonade, increased speed as he headed for the huge metal gate of the dry dock. With his own guns still blazing away he took the "Campbeltown" with a mighty crash right into the gate—so that her bows, reinforced with concrete, cut through it and the ship reared up at a crazy angle. In his



Cmdr. R. E. D. RYDER, V.C., R.N.

Commanded the Naval force in the attack on St. Nazaire (March 27–28, 1942). The escape of his "flagship," an M.G.B., which was the last ship to leave the scene, was "almost a miracle," said the citation announcing the award of his V.C.



Able Seaman W. A. SAVAGE, V.C.

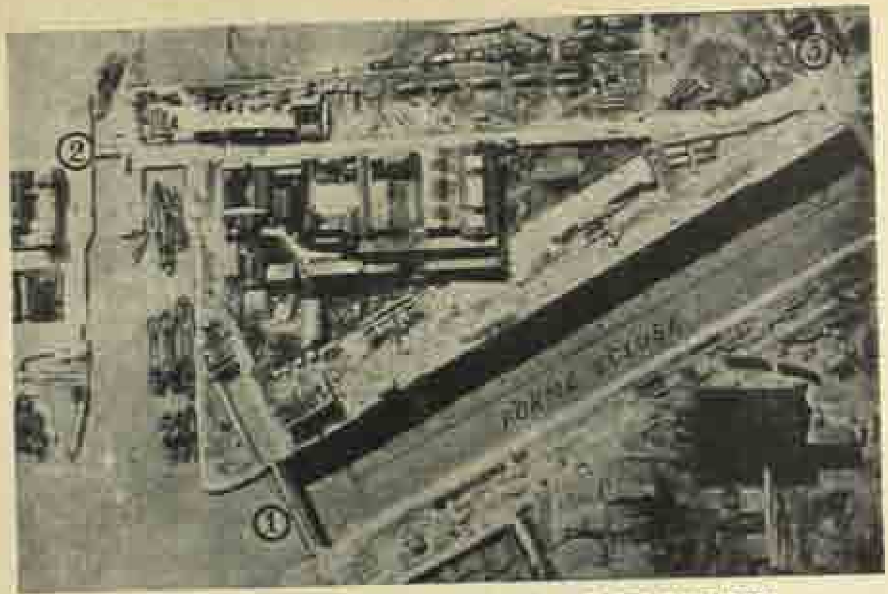
A pom-pom layer in the M.G.B. which acted as Commander Ryder's H.Q. during the action, he worked his forward gun completely exposed. He blew off the top of a German pillbox and was killed on the way out of harbour by shell-fire from the shore.



Lt.-Cmdr. S. H. BEATTIE, V.C., R.N.

Commanded the destroyer "Campbeltown," which, laden with explosives, rammed the lock gates at St. Nazaire, was scuttled there, and blew up later. Taken prisoner, the citation of his V.C. was read to him long after by the German camp commandant.

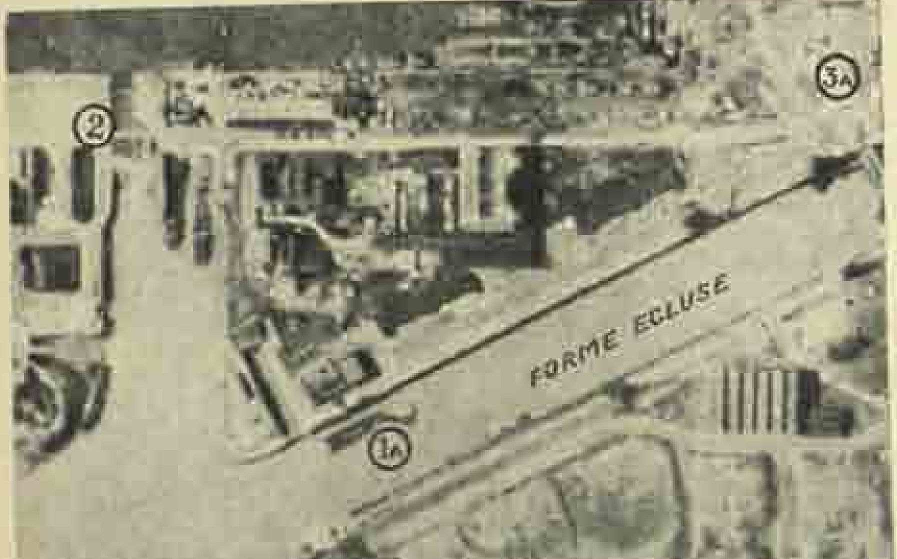
Photos, Keystone; Planet News; G.P.U.



WHAT THE ATTACK ACHIEVED AT ST. NAZAIRE

Top, before the raid by British combined forces on March 27–28, 1942: (1) lock gate at outer end of Forme Ecluse, which gave entrance to the Bassin de Penhouet; (2) swing bridge and lock at entrance to Bassin de St. Nazaire and submarine pens; (3) building housing machinery to work inner lock gate. Below after the raid: (1A), the outer gate broken away and lying against western side of dock; (3A), wrecked machinery building. The machinery for the outer gate, on the W. side of the dock near (1A), was also put out of commission. (Photographs taken by R.A.F. reconnaissance plane.)

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



determination to achieve the main purpose of the raid he had taken the old American destroyer to her last resting place at almost twice the specified speed.

Meanwhile, the M.L.s fought their way inshore a little lower down the estuary. More than one by this time were in flames, but they still fought deadly duels with solid German pillboxes. In some cases they were so close that the enemy behind the thick concrete were able to lob hand grenades into the British vessels. M.L. No. 9, commanded by Lieut. T. D. L. Platt, met this form of attack. Lieut. T. W. Boyd in M.L. No. 8 immediately went to his assistance.

In this inferno of battle the time came for the Commando troops to play their part. Already the special service men who had taken passage for the great adventure in "Campbeltown" were ashore. With their packs of high explosives tied to their backs the demolition experts raced to their appointed tasks while the small bands of covering soldiers took command of the immediate vicinity. To the red glow of the fires started by the R.A.F. and the light from burning M.L.s was added the swelling blaze of buildings and dock installations suffering at the hands of the Commandos.

Some of the troops in the M.L.s scrambled ashore, although the small unarmoured British vessels were not strong enough to overcome the enemy fortified positions on and around the Old Mole, which would have been a key point in our operations. Lieut.-Colonel Newman watched the scene from the bridge of the motor gunboat, and at a moment when he must have known that any hopes of getting off those already ashore were extremely slender, insisted on landing with his handful of headquarters officers and men. The motor gunboat put them ashore close to the "Campbeltown" and also picked up a number of Naval survivors and wounded Commando men from that ship.

The Germans were still firing ferociously from their many gun positions, although the gallant little fleet that had sailed, with White Ensigns flying, into the enemy stronghold an hour or so earlier was now sadly depleted.

Able Seaman Savage, V.C.

The slim motor torpedo-boat had come right up to the old dock near the "Campbeltown," and Lieut. R. C. M. V. Wynn had fired his delayed-action torpedoes at the gates. Then came a moment when, apart from burning craft, only the M.G.B. and one M.L. remained in the harbour. They attacked a German pillbox at close range. Able Seaman Savage, on the exposed forward gun of the M.G.B., blew the top off it. Most of the crew of the M.G.B. were wounded, and also on board were the wounded from the "Campbeltown."

The M.L. in company with Commander Ryder's small flagship was set on fire a few minutes later, and then the order was given for the M.G.B. to attempt the desperate run down the estuary. For mile after mile she went at full speed towards the open sea, subject to the terrific fire of every gun in the German defences. Six shells penetrated a petrol tank, but it did not explode. Her escape, even from the German heavy guns at the mouth of the estuary, was subsequently described in the citation accompanying the award of the Victoria Cross to Commander Ryder as "almost a miracle." Able Seaman Savage was killed by a shell splinter from the last German salvo; he received the posthumous award of the V.C.

Meanwhile, ashore, the Commando troops were fighting on. Under Colonel Newman's command were 44 officers and 224 other ranks. Not all of these got ashore; at least three of the M.L.s were forced to leave the estuary without disembarking any of the men they carried. Of the total force





AFTER THE RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE AT LE TOUQUET

Special Service troops under Major K. R. S. Trevor landed on enemy-occupied coast in the Boulogne-Le Touquet area early on June 4, 1942. In the course of an hour they gained extremely valuable information. The Royal Navy provided an escort, and the R.A.F. gave fighter cover. Our casualties were slight. Top and centre, Commandos in their landing craft making the return journey across the Channel. Below, landing on the English shore after the crossing.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; "The Times"



34 officers and 178 other ranks were left behind. Months were to elapse before the story of how this gallant band continued the fight in the face of overwhelming odds could be told. Then it came from three of them who, showing indomitable courage and resource and with luck on their side, escaped and returned to Britain.

They told how Colonel Newman rallied his men and, when it became apparent that there was no chance for them to get away as had been planned, issued three orders: That they were to do their best to get back to England; that there was to be no surrender until all ammunition was used up; and that they were not to surrender at all if they could help it. Surrounded by the growing forces of the enemy, the Commando men fought their way from the dock area, crossing an iron bridge under withering machine-gun fire. As enemy units appeared in the streets this small band of Britons coolly waited until they could shoot them down at point-blank range. A sergeant-major, with bullets in his shoulder, arms and legs, fought on with them.

Fate of Col. Newman's Force

Colonel Newman continued to lead them with the utmost courage, and it was he who eventually gave the order for them to split up, according to a pre-arranged plan, and attempt to break through to open country. The coming of daylight proved a great handicap, and there is no doubt that this enabled the enemy to isolate and capture most of the small parties. Colonel Newman himself was made prisoner, and the enemy also captured Lieut.-Commander Beattie, who subsequently received the award of the third V.C. of the expedition. No awards to the Commando troops could be made until their splendid Commanding Officer was free and could make his report.

The final glory of St. Nazaire came with the blowing up of the massive explosive charges in the "Campbeltown," which completely wrecked the entrance to the dry dock so that a year later it was still out of commission. Forty important German officers and technicians are said to have lost their lives in this explosion. Such was the confusion when the delayed-action torpedoes fired by Lieut. Wynn went off that the Nazis opened fire again—on one another. Of those who manned the "Campbeltown" and the little vessels which carried the Commandos, 34 officers and 151 ratings were killed or missing out of a total of 62 officers and 291 ratings. For the heroes of St. Nazaire the cost was heavy in proportion to their numbers; in relation to their magnificent achievements, it was fantastically light.

The next notable raid came on April 22, 1942, when the Commandos made a lightning attack in the neighbourhood of Boulogne. This, however, might be included in what Combined Operations would regard as "routine raids." Another of the same type was carried out on the Casquets lighthouse in the Channel Islands on September 2, 1942, when prisoners were taken and useful information obtained.

One other raid in 1942 across the Channel should be recorded, however—that between Boulogne and Le Touquet in the early hours of **June 4.** It was a large-scale reconnaissance and the special service troops, under Major K. R. S. Trevor, landed on the beaches and advanced over the dunes. They shot up German gun positions, cut their way through the barbed wire and went some distance inland. Meanwhile the enemy, in much confusion, were firing at one another. Our troops withdrew with only slight casualties after obtaining valuable information.

Commando men played a vital role in the storming of Diego Suarez on May 5, 1942, when the French island of Madagascar was prevented from falling into the hands of the Axis. The full story is told in Chapter 225, but a word may be given here on the task performed by No. 5 Commando. With a company of the East Lancashires it was to land at the N. end of Courrier Bay, capture two coastal defence batteries, and push east to take the village of Diego Suarez and secure the peninsula on which that village lay. Across a narrow channel only three-quarters of a mile wide was Antsirabe, which, with the peninsula to its east, was the objective of another party. The main landings were to be made at three points on Ambararata Bay, to the south of the point where the Commandos and East Lancashires were to go ashore.

Commandos' Rôle at Diego Suarez

At 4.30 a.m. on May 5 the Commando men with the East Lancashires landed without opposition and overcame the only battery found (viz., at Windsor Castle). The Commandos then pushed on to storm Diego Suarez, which fell a little after 4 p.m. The French were taken by surprise, for they had not expected an attack from Courrier Bay on account of its difficult approach—made more dangerous by mines. The operation proved a critical one and its success was vital for that of the entire plan. By May 7 the whole area was in our hands.

Further action became necessary in the autumn, and No. 5 Commando landed at Majunga, which they took in less than an hour. A few days later they captured Tamatave. During the Majunga attack our Naval force at the beaches was harassed by snipers and operations were held up for some time until the Naval Beach Commando saved the situation by Lewis gunfire and grenades. (*See* illus., p. 2248.)

In major and minor attacks, the inspiring, hard-hitting British Commandos went many times during a memorable year across the wide no-man's-land of the sea and struck doughty blows in the name of Freedom and of all freedom-loving people.

FINAL ORDERS TO LOVAT'S BOULOGNE RAIDERS

Every man with his equipment returned from the reconnaissance raid carried out in the early morning of April 22, 1942, near Boulogne. Major Lord Lovat, who is seen here giving last orders to the officers of his small Commando force, said afterwards that they penetrated enemy defences along a frontage of 800 yards. Fifty-three regiments were represented in this band of élite troops.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



Diary of the War

MAY and JUNE, 1942

May 1, 1942. Mandalay evacuated. Air offensive begins against Malta. Daylight sweeps and bombing raids by R.A.F. over France and occupied territory.

May 2. British troops on north bank of Irrawaddy withdrawn. Dr. Evatt arrives in Britain. U.S. Lease-Lend extended to Iraq and Persia. Brazil and Paraguay break off relations with Hungary.

May 3. Japanese capture Bhamo. *Night.*—U.S. bombers begin series of raids on Rangoon; Germans bomb Alexandria; air raid on Exeter.

May 4. Japanese invasion fleet attacked off Solomon Is. by U.S. Naval and air forces. Japanese land on Corregidor. Mr. R. G. Casey arrives at Cairo. Uruguay breaks off relations with Hungary. *Night.*—Air raids on British south-coast towns. R.A.F. bomb Skoda works at Pilsen.

May 5. British force lands on Madagascar.

May 6. Loss of H.M. destroyer "Jaguar" anncd. Corregidor garrison surrenders.

May 7. Battle with Japanese fleet resumed in Coral Sea. Lord Gort transferred from Gibraltar to Malta as Governor and C.-in-C. British occupy Diego Suarez.

May 8. German offensive in Kerch peninsula. Japanese capture Akyab and Myitkina. *Night.*—R.A.F. bomb Warnemunde.

May 9. Japanese fleet in Coral Sea withdraws northward, having suffered heavy losses. U.S. aircraft carrier "Lexington" and a destroyer lost. U.S. negotiations with Vichy authorities in Martinique.

May 10. Mr. Churchill in a broadcast warns Germany of Allied retaliation if enemy uses gas against Russians.

May 11. H.M. destroyers "Lively," "Kipling" and "Jackal" sunk by air attack in Mediterranean. Enemy submarine sinks freighter in St. Lawrence river.

May 13. Timoshenko launches offensive in Kharkov region; Russians on Kerch peninsula withdraw.

May 15. British forces retreating from Burma reach India. Costa Rica declares war on Hungary and Rumania.

May 16. Germans capture Kerch.

May 17. Loss of H.M. corvette "Hollyhock" anncd. German cruiser "Prinz Eugen" attacked by Fleet Air Arm off Norway.

May 18. Admiral Sir Henry Harwood apptd. to Mediterranean Command; (Adm. Cunningham goes to Washington as head of Admiralty delegation.)

May 19. United Nations' Air Training Conference in Ottawa. German counter-offensive S.E. of Kharkov. *Night.*—R.A.F. raid Mannheim. Air raid on Hull.

May 20. Russians attack at Taganrog.

May 21. Japanese offensive in Chekiang. Heavy R.A.F. offensive in Libya.

May 24. General Stilwell with staff reaches Delhi from Burma.

May 25. *Night.*—R.A.F. begin series of raids on Messina.

May 26. Anglo-Soviet Treaty signed in London. German offensive in Libya.

May 27. Reinhardt Heydrich, Gestapo chief in Prague, wounded by bomb and shots; dies on June 4.

May 28. In Libya the Germans withdraw through gaps in British minefields.

May 29. In Libya, fierce tank battles in Knightsbridge region. Mexico declares war on Axis Powers (as from May 22). *Night.*—Raids by R.A.F. on Gennevilliers power station, the Gnome-et-Rhone works and the Goodrich factory near Paris.

May 30. General Mason Macfarlane apptd. Governor of Gibraltar. Chinese forces evacuate Kinhwa in Chekiang. *Night.*—Raid by 1,130 R.A.F. bombers on Cologne.

May 31. *Night.*—Air raid on Canterbury. Attack on Sydney harbour by four Japanese midget submarines; all lost.

June 1, 1942. In Libya Germans widen gaps in British minefields. Loss of H.M. cruiser "Trinidad" anncd. Daylight bombing raids by R.A.F. on France and occupied territory. *Night.*—Air raid on Ipswich; 1,036 R.A.F. bombers raid Essen.

June 2. U.S. Lease-Lend agreement with China. *Night.*—Raid on Canterbury.

June 3. Rommel's forces overrun British 150th Brigade near Knightsbridge. Japanese aircraft bomb U.S. Naval base of Dutch Harbour in Aleutians. Major G. Lloyd George apptd. Minister of Fuel, Light and Power.

June 4. Midway Island beats off Japanese air and sea attack. British counter-attacks fail to halt Rommel's advance. Commando raid on French coast between Boulogne and Le Touquet. Anglo-Belgian military and economic agreement signed. Hitler visits Mannerheim in Finland.

June 5. Germans open heavy offensive against Sevastopol. U.S.A. declares war on Hungary, Rumania and Bulgaria; warns Japan of retaliation in kind if gas is used against any of United Nations. *Night.*—Raid on Ruhr by R.A.F.

June 6. *Night.*—R.A.F. raid on Emden; Germans raid Canterbury.

June 7. Rommel opens heavy attack on Bir Hacheim, held by Free French force under General Koenig.

June 8. Viscount Swinton apptd. British Minister in West Africa.

June 9. Anncd. that H.M. submarine "Turbulent" had sunk an Italian destroyer and four ships in Mediterranean.

June 10. German offensive under Von Bock on Kharkov sector. In reprisal for death of Heydrich Germans destroy the village of Lidice, near Kladno, in Czechoslovakia: all men shot, and the women and children deported. *Night.*—Garrison of Bir Hacheim withdrawn on the C.-in-C.'s orders.

June 11. *Night.*—American Liberator bombers attack oilfields of Ploesti, in Rumania.

June 12. Germans threaten Tobruk after a tank battle S.E. of Knightsbridge.

June 13. British tanks defeated with heavy losses at Knightsbridge. Rommel advances on Tobruk. Japanese land on Attu, in Aleutians. Loss of H.M. submarine "Olympus" anncd.

June 14. In face of outflanking threat in Gazala sector, General Ritchie withdraws British forces there.

June 15. British forces withdraw from Knightsbridge.

June 16. British convoy from Gibraltar fights its way, after continuous attack from 13th, to Malta; another, from Alexandria, is forced to return after four-day action.

June 17. Ritchie's forces withdraw to Egyptian border; garrison left in Tobruk. H.M. destroyer "Wild Swan" sunk by air attack in Atlantic.

June 18. Two German columns advance towards Egyptian frontier; next day they turn westward to join in attack on Tobruk. Mr. Churchill arrives in the U.S.A. Large Japanese force invades Fukien.

June 20. Rommel attacks Tobruk in great strength. *Night.*—Japanese shell Vancouver Is.

June 21. Germans capture Tobruk; they advance eastward and occupy Bardia. Japanese land on Kiska, in Aleutians. *Night.*—Air raid on Southampton.

June 23. Russians at Kharkov fall back.

June 24. Rommel's forces advance 50 miles into Egypt; British evacuate Sollum and Sidi Omar and withdraw to Mersa Matruh.

June 25. General Auchinleck takes over personal command from Ritchie. Maj.-Gen. Eisenhower apptd. commander of U.S. forces in European theatre of war. Russians evacuate Kupyansk. *Night.*—1,000-bomber raid by R.A.F. on Bremen.

June 26. *Night.*—Air raid on Norwich.

June 27. Big battle at Mersa Matruh. Mr. Churchill arrives in Britain. *Night.*—R.A.F. raid on Bremen; Luftwaffe raids Gibraltar.

June 28. German offensive at Kursk. *Night.*—Air raid on Weston-super-Mare.

June 29. Germans enter Mersa Matruh; they bomb Alexandria. *Night.*—R.A.F. bomb Bremen.

June 30. Germans reach El Daba.









SEVASTOPOL'S MAGNIFICENT RESISTANCE

Invested from the end of October 1941 until the beginning of the next July, Sevastopol was assaulted *from June 2* by an enormous force of infantry, tanks, guns and aircraft. It fell on July 3, 1942. Soviet forces were commanded by Vice-Admiral Oktyabrsky (1); the enemy force by General von Manstein (3, on left, talking to Col. von Choltitz). German soldiers are seen in (2) hurling grenades into buildings as they advance along the streets. (4) Battered ruins of the great Maxim Gorki fortress; another view in (5), where a German is rushing in to throw a grenade. Map shows forts: A, Maxim Gorki; B, Molotov; C, Siberia; D, Stalin; E, Lenin.





SUMMER CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA, MAY TO JULY, 1942

This account begins with the German offensive and the Soviet forestalling attacks which opened in the middle of May. It describes the operations which led to the Russian withdrawal behind the Donetz. After a lull the main enemy offensive was launched, on the Kursk front, and carried the Germans eventually across the Don, giving them Rostov and other important cities

Spring thaws brought operations in Russia to a standstill in 1942, as was expected, but speculation was rife as to the probable course of action of the opponents when the ground dried. Few can have thought it possible that the Russians, after their terrible experiences of the preceding summer and autumn and their exhausting efforts in their winter counter-offensive, would be able to resume the offensive on a great scale. It is true that Voroshilov and Budyonny had been commissioned to train new armies, but it was hardly conceivable that these armies were as yet sufficiently trained or equipped for offensive operations. The question of equipment was specially serious, since many important centres of Russian war industry had been occupied by the enemy; and although skilled labour and machinery had been moved east it could not yet be producing in quantities. Moreover, in consequence of the war with Japan the material assistance promised by the Allies had fallen behind programme.

Under these circumstances an offensive against an enemy who had had time and labour to consolidate his defences and communications would have been doomed to failure unless the Allies were in a position to open a second front in the west, and that obviously was not feasible. Not only were the resources of Britain and America strained by the Japanese attacks, but the entry of America into the war had temporarily weakened rather than improved the shipping situation, on which the opening of a second front vitally depended. New and more vulnerable targets were offered to U-boats, of which the enemy was swift to take advantage, and losses in the Caribbean Sea, especially of tankers, mounted at an alarming rate (see Chapter 214).

For Germany, on the other hand, the general situation favoured offensive action, for she was without other serious commitments. Even in Libya, where Rommel had only partially recovered from the reverse he had suffered in the winter, it was improbable (in view of the diversion of strength to the Far East) that Auchinleck would be in a position to resume the offensive. The chief disadvantages Germany laboured under were the necessity of retaining a large proportion of the fighter strength of the Luftwaffe in the west to meet the increasing weight of R.A.F. attacks, and the necessity of keeping adequate forces in the occupied countries to maintain order and to protect the western sea-board against raids. Germany had still an immense army in Russia; though it had had great losses and had suffered terribly under winter conditions, new drafts and returned wounded would go far to replace casualties, and the troops might be expected to recuperate rapidly in warmer weather. With German war industries in full operation, and factories in occupied countries adding to output, the rate of replacement of lost material would be rapid.

Probable German Strategy

It was practically certain that Germany would again attempt to secure decisive results, but in what form would the new attempt be made? In the previous year the enemy, by conducting a three-pronged blitzkrieg attack, had evidently hoped to destroy practically the whole Russian Army. That hope did not accord with the previously accepted German theory that, owing to Russia's size and population, her armies could not be totally destroyed though they might be rendered impotent. Manifestly the hope had been disappointed, and it had led to a dispersion of effort contrary to

OPPOSING COMMANDERS ON KHARKOV FRONT

Left, at his H.Q. on the South-Western front Marshal Timoshenko holds a conference with Khrushchev, member of the Military Council (centre) and Colonel-General Cherevichenko (right). Right, the German Commander on this front, Field-Marshal von Bock (on left), with Major-General Lindemann at an observation post.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Associated Press





RUSSIAN FAMILY LEAVES KERCH

The fall of Kerch to Von Manstein's German and Rumanian troops on May 23, 1942, was a bitter blow, for the town had been recaptured by Soviet troops in a brilliant action at the end of the previous December. Kerch had first fallen into enemy hands on November 16, 1941, when the Germans had overrun the Crimea.

Photo, Planet News

German belief in concentration. It seemed probable, therefore, that a strategy more consistent with previous beliefs would be adopted, but what would be its particular object? An offensive in the north seemed the least probable. The region did not lend itself to Panzer tactics. Leningrad had proved a tough obstacle, and the Lake Ladoga route had saved it from collapse through hunger. A renewal of the attempt to take Moscow seemed to be suggested by the efforts made during the winter to retain the Vyasma salient. But the salient hardly gave room to serve as a springboard for a full power drive. Owing to the footing obtained by the Russians on the Moscow–Riga railway between Rzhev and Veliki Luki the salient was served only by one main railway.

Furthermore, any offensive starting from it would be exposed to counter-attack in flank from both north and south. Undoubtedly on account of its proximity the salient constituted a threat to Moscow, but previous experience had shown how strongly defended and how difficult was the forest belt that lay between it and the capital. On the whole the chief value of the Vyasma salient lay in the fact that its threat would compel the Russians to tie up large reserves for defence.

It therefore seemed probable that the Germans would have strong reasons for taking the offensive in the south, where, in the previous year, they had had, on the whole, the greatest success. The recapture of Kerch in the Crimea and Rostov were the only serious reverses their southern armies had suffered in the winter, and the troops had probably found good shelter in the numerous large towns of a highly industrialized region. A very close network of railways would serve the base and, even more important, the effects of the thaw would pass off earlier than farther north, thus providing a longer campaigning season. The chief argument against a southern offensive was that it would strike a part only of the Russian armies and would leave a much larger part not seriously engaged and therefore possibly capable of counter-attacking the flank of an eastward drive, which in consequence would have to be held defensively.

Reasons for Southern Offensive

An eastward offensive in the south would obviously not destroy the main Russian armies, but it held out good prospects of rendering them impotent. The capture of the Caucasian oilfields, or the interruption of their communications with central and northern Russia by the Volga waterway, would cut off the Soviet armies from oil supplies on which they depended for sustained operations. The capture of the great grain-producing areas of the Don and the Kuban steppes would also vitally affect Russian food supplies. A southern offensive had therefore very important objects in addition to providing a chance of destroying or isolating a considerable section of Russian military forces. If successful it might be further exploited by an attack towards Moscow from the south in conjunction with an attack from the Vyasma springboard. Sections of opinion in Britain saw also in a drive beyond the Caucasus the danger of the development of a great pincer offensive against the Middle East, linked with an offensive from Libya.

It is somewhat difficult to believe that such an ambitious programme, involving movement over immense distances by indifferent communications, was ever seriously contemplated by the German General Staff, but no doubt the capture of Caucasia would have greatly weakened the position of Turkey and have made it necessary to strengthen the Allied forces in Iran and Iraq. The capture of the Caucasus oilfields and grain-producing areas of the Kuban would also strengthen greatly Germany's economic position, the oil being of immense importance for the agricultural development of occupied areas in Russia.

These were the arguments, but the first definite sign that the German offensive would be in the south was given when, on May 11, 1942, a violent attack supported by a great concentration of aircraft was launched against the Russian positions in the Kerch peninsula, recaptured from the Germans in the previous December by a brilliant amphibious attack. The success of that Russian operation had caused the Germans temporarily to abandon attempts to take Sevastopol, and the immediate object of the attack on Kerch was no doubt to clear the arena for a renewal of the assault; the capture of Sevastopol would deprive the Russian Black Sea Fleet of an important base and thus give greater opportunities of using sea transport to relieve the strain on the railways which would have to serve a southern offensive. The capture of Kerch might also provide a subsidiary springboard for the invasion of Caucasia. The attack proceeded with great violence; Russian resistance was stubborn, but, separated from reinforcements and supplies by a waterline nowhere less than four miles wide, the garrison was almost completely isolated by overpowering air attack, and the defence was soon forced back to the permanent fortification on the coast. On May 23 the remnants of the Kerch garrison were evacuated.

Loss of Kerch

Meantime, on the 12th, the Russians took the initiative in order to forestall the main German offensive and to upset the preparations for it, of which they were probably well aware. In considerable strength Timoshenko on that date launched an offensive on the Kharkov front. It was not clear on what line this front was stabilized during the winter after Timoshenko's counter-offensive operations which followed the recapture of Rostov, but probably during the spring lull the front ran from the defences of Kursk (held by the

Germans) southwards along the east side of the upper Donetz (of which the enemy held the crossings) up to and including the great bend of the river eastwards at Chuguyev. Downstream of that point the Russians apparently were holding a salient across the middle Donetz, which probably extended to the neighbourhood of the important railway junction of Lozovaya. The base of the salient extended eastwards to and included Izyum. Although the Russians held the eastern part of the Donetz basin, the Germans had a foothold on the middle Donetz about Izyum and Slavyansk and occupied the central portions of the basin. Soviet forces were therefore well established on both sides of the lower Donetz, and this gave them possession of the coal mining area in the neighbourhood of the important town of Voroshilovgrad and of the railway connecting Rostov with Moscow.

Timoshenko's new counter-offensive appears to have aimed at isolating Kharkov rather than effecting its capture, and seems to have consisted of two main thrusts—one north of the city across the upper Donetz, and one to the south extending the Lozovaya salient in a north-westerly direction, with the object of cutting communications between Kharkov and Poltava. Direct attacks on the outer defences of Kharkov, linking the main thrusts, were also probably made. The offensive started in very encouraging style, and the German advanced defences were overrun to a considerable depth well across the upper and middle Donetz. Byelgorod was captured in the north and Lozovaya in the south, while considerable progress was made north-west of the latter town towards Krasnograd. Here, however, the defences of the Kharkov–Krasnograd–Dnepropetrovsk railway appear to have offered an unbreakable line.

Timoshenko's Objective

Major Krasnogolovsky, of the Red Army, stated (Soviet War News) that the enemy made very little use of tanks on the first day of the Russian offensive. They had obviously hoped to keep their tank troops in reserve. He went on:

"Nevertheless, on the second day the German Command was compelled to bring its 23rd Tank Division into action to fill the gap. This division acted in a body without scattering its forces. The German tank columns came up against Soviet tanks, artillery, aircraft, and infantry armed with anti-tank weapons. During one such battle 32 Soviet tanks, under Klimchuk's command, reached an elevation in the rear of the enemy infantry. Fifty German tanks appeared from the forest. Permitting them to approach within close range the Soviet machines opened fire, immediately gaining the initiative. Seven German machines were set on fire and three damaged before the enemy had time to deploy. Each Soviet platoon was opposed by one, two and in some cases even three enemy platoons. In the ensuing battle hundreds of shells flew from both sides. Skilfully manoeuvring, the Soviet tankmen directed their fire at the most vulnerable points in the armour of the German machines and stunned the enemy with surprise blows at the front and flanks."

At the end of an hour's fighting neither side had gained ground, but then the Soviet tanks went in again and the enemy began to weaken. Thirty-eight of their 50 tanks had been disabled and the rest withdrew to a near-by forest.

"The Soviet tankmen went off in pursuit," Krasnogolovsky continued. "At that moment 18 new enemy tanks appeared from behind a hill. These had been lying in ambush, intending to attack the Soviet positions from the rear. . . . Major Krivoshei and Captain Dynkov stopped the pursuit of the defeated enemy and headed for the new German tank group. Another fierce battle ensued. It lasted for 30 minutes and resulted in the destruction of half the German tanks. Thus in these two battles 32 Soviet tanks defeated 68 Nazi tanks."

After the first two days of the offensive the Germans made attempts to check its progress by repeated fierce



MEDIUM TANKS IN THE KHARKOV OFFENSIVE

Below, Soviet infantrymen on and behind tanks take up close firing positions at the beginning of an advance against German outposts near Kharkov. Top, 'tank destroyers,' armed with the effective two-man anti-tank rifle, were inseparable companions of infantry units during an advance. (See also illus., p. 2265.) *Photos, British Official: U.S.S.R. Official*



counter-attacks with tanks supported by aircraft. These local counter-strokes proved expensive and had no great success, though no doubt they slowed the rate of the Russian advance.

On May 17 a more formidable German counter-attack began to develop in the Izyum region. It was evidently a full-scale attempt, not only to stop the Russian drive but to strike at its communications and cut off its line of retreat. This move had been organized with characteristic German speed and thoroughness, and was delivered with troops concentrated in the Donetz basin in preparation for an intended offensive into Caucasia. Their drive in a new direction was facilitated by the excellent system of railways and roads available. Some such counter-attack had evidently been anticipated by Timoshenko, and the Russian flank defences prevented anything like a sudden break-through.

It had the effect, however, of almost immediately bringing the Russian offensive to a standstill. A period of very fierce fighting ensued, with attacks and counter-attacks as each side brought up fresh reserves. There were in particular many tank battles in which the Soviet troops, armed with a new anti-tank rifle, did considerable execution. But numbers and experience were on the side of the Germans, and it became apparent that the Russian line of retreat was seriously threatened, especially when some of the crossings over the Donetz in their rear fell into German hands.

By May 22 a general withdrawal was in progress across the Donetz. The Germans were by now also counter-attacking north-east of Kharkov between Byelgorod and Chuguyev, so that a dangerous pincer movement was developing. Temporarily the Russians rallied behind the Donetz, and fighting died down for a time. The Germans announced on the 27th that the Kharkov battle was ended and claimed the capture of about a quarter-million prisoners. The Russian counter-offensive had ended in a serious reverse, though the German claims were probably exaggerated and the enemy also had had heavy loss. But the manoeuvre had partly achieved its object, for it had drawn northwards much of Von Bock's army designed for the invasion of the Caucasus, and had probably delayed the opening of the main offensive, thus shortening the campaigning season. This probably was eventually important, but the immediate price paid for the respite was heavy.

The lull in the fighting prevailed along the whole front till, on June 5, the Germans opened a heavy attack towards Sevastopol. This was to be expected after the capture of Kerch, and marked the beginning of the final assault on the fortress, the siege of which had begun in the previous November. The story is told in detail later in this Chapter (p. 2267).

On June 11 fighting again flared up on the Kharkov front, the Germans launching a very heavy attack across the Donetz. The defence held stubbornly, and though progress was made it was not rapid. Not till the 26th did the Russians admit withdrawal and the evacuation of the important railway junction at Kupyansk on the Oskol river. Behind this tributary of the Donetz which, flowing from north to south, formed the last strong natural position on this part of the front, they rallied, though still under heavy pressure.

Meantime (see p. 2267) the situation at Sevastopol was becoming very serious. The outer defences had been captured and some of the very strong inner forts had fallen under bombardment by heavy guns and concentrated bombing. Attempts to break through with tanks to the city had so far failed.



RUSSIAN K.V. TANK IN ACTION NEAR VORONEZH

The K.V.—named after Marshal Kliment Voroshilov—was produced in the Kirov works and first went into action in the winter of 1939 against Finland. Ten years earlier Russia had no factories able to produce motor vehicles or tractors, let alone tanks, but in the intervening period extremely rapid advances in design and construction were achieved, including (in 1936–38) the production of a suitable Diesel engine for tanks.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official

German Kursk Thrust

The main German thrust was still to come, and was delivered on June 28 on the Kursk front eastwards in the direction of Voronezh on the Don, thus prolonging the front of attack to some 200 miles between the pivot at Orel and the middle Donetz. For the first few days the Kursk thrust made little progress, and there was very heavy fighting in which the Russians had considerable success in dealing with tanks. Not till July 2 could the Germans claim to have breached the Russian positions on practically the whole front of attack. They had been forced to adopt new tactics, having abandoned attempts at deep Panzer thrusts in view of the growing ability of the Russians to deal with them. Instead, infantry had to lead the way supported by the fire of tanks. This slowed down the rate of advance from the 20 miles a day of the previous year to an average of about three or four. Once the Russian defence system had been passed progress became more rapid, and by July 7 the battle was raging at the approaches to Voronezh. Farther south the evacuation of Staryi Oskol proved that the Russian line on the Oskol had been turned, though the situation there was still obscure.

The Russians were making desperate attempts to hold Voronezh and to prevent the Germans from crossing the Don. In this they were in the main successful. Though the Germans did cross the river, establishing three bridges and occupying part of Voronezh, they were unable to form a bridgehead of sufficient size to allow the deployment of large forces. Their small footholds were subject to constant





GERMANS CROSS THE DON AT VORONEZH

Early in July 1942 the Germans were outside Voronezh, and claimed its capture on the 7th when, it is true, they held part of the city. By the 10th large enemy forces were established on the eastern bank of the Don. (See map, p. 2267.) Top, a bridge blown up by Soviet forces during the retreat; left, Germans cross the river on a makeshift bridge. Below, Soviet infantry and anti-tank riflemen guard the Don bank; at the left is an anti-tank rifle (see also illus. p. 2263).
Photos, Planet News; Keystone







ARTILLERY IN ROSTOV STREET BATTLES

Artillery, tanks and even aircraft were used in the fiercest street fighting hitherto experienced in modern warfare, every group of buildings being turned into a stronghold and yielded only after it became a mass of ruins. Left, German field-gun shelling a strong-point over open sights; right, enemy infantry outside a blazing corner block. Rostov was occupied by the Nazis on July 27

Photos, Keystone; Associated Press

counter-attack and their position was precarious. Moreover, the Russians were able to retain some portion of the west bank. This successful defence had far-reaching results, for the Germans had meant to cross the Don in great force and to continue the thrust eastwards to the Volga, cutting the railways which linked Stalingrad and the Russian armies in the south with central Russia, and interrupting traffic on the Volga.

Their further intentions if they had succeeded in this are a matter of speculation. Stalin has said that they intended to swing north and attack Moscow from the south. That may have been their ultimate object, but it seems probable that their immediate plan was to establish a northern defensive flank and then swing south on both sides of the Don to complete the destruction of Timoshenko's army and the capture of Caucasia.

Deprived of their chief oil supplies, Moscow and the armies in the north could be dealt with later. But the enemy's failure to cross at Voronezh left the railways on the east bank of the Don unbroken, and these lines were to prove the framework round which the relief of Stalingrad and the winter offensive were organized by Soviet forces. An account of the fighting on the Don was given by a Red Army officer. The enemy held an advantageous position on the W. bank of the Don south of Voronezh. From the heights the Hungarians defending this sector were able to control the eastern bank and pour mortar and artillery fire on to the Soviet positions, roads and villages. The Russian Command decided to dislodge the Hungarians:

"Red planes harried the enemy incessantly all the night before the crossing, wearing down his troops in raid after raid. With the approach of dawn the Soviet troops started to ford the river at several points. Some sections . . . swam across in full kit. The offensive caught the Hungarians by surprise. They hurriedly opened heavy trench-mortar fire, but it was too late to prevent the Soviet crossing. . . . Particularly violent battles ensued for two villages, one on each flank of the sector. The first task of the attacking forces was to drive the Hungarians from a height on the near side of one of these villages. . . . The hill was very steep and hard to climb with full equipment, but the Soviet infantry managed it. The struggle for this height continued all day. Only at evening were the Hungarians finally overwhelmed, enabling the Red forces to rush the village on the far side and establish themselves in houses on the outskirts."

Red Army subdivisions then penetrated deeper into the south to press the enemy back and secure their flank, after which the attack on the village was renewed.

"Late in the evening the Soviet troops observed two battalions of Hungarian infantry deploying for a counter-attack from three different directions. The Red infantry opened heavy rifle and machine-gun fire supported by artillery and forced back the Hungarians. . . . At dawn the enemy again tried to counter-attack, but Soviet aircraft forced them to hug the ground, while the infantry again drove them back. Having secured their flanks, a subdivision attacked the village, captured it, and continued to press forward. Hungarians occupying a village farther south were unable to assist their retreating comrades. . . . Meanwhile a Soviet Guards unit on the opposite flank had stormed the other key village. The capture of these two points decided the fate of the whole sector. After clearing the enemy from a big strip on the western bank of the Don, Soviet units began to deploy north and south simultaneously, fortifying the newly occupied positions."

Checked at Voronezh, the Germans appear quickly to have modified their plans, the greater part of the Kursk army wheeling south between the Oskol and the Don. Rossosh was captured about July 10, thus cutting the last direct railway communication between Rostov and Moscow, and the wheeling movement continued to make rapid progress. With their north flank turned and their southern flank threatened by a German attack across

the Donetz in the Lissichansk region, the position of the Russians on the Oskol became untenable, and they withdrew rapidly towards the lower Don. The dry and open country favoured German Panzer tactics and there were no natural features on which a stand might be made. The weight of the German pursuit followed generally the line of the Voronezh–Rostov railway, and when Millerovo was captured it became clear that the Russians in the eastern portion of the Donetz basin, who were now also being heavily attacked, were in danger.

They retired fighting, towards the lower Don and Rostov, apparently intending to stand on the left bank of the river, for by July 27 Rostov and all the towns on the right bank had been evacuated. The army that had retreated from the Oskol and Millerovo was, however, directed towards Tsimlyansk, on the Don, halfway between Stalingrad and Rostov. It was at this point that it seemed most probable that the Germans would attempt a crossing in order to cut the railway connecting Stalingrad with Krasnodar and Novorossiisk, which here runs close to the south bank of the river. Another portion of the retreating Soviet army fell back to the great bend of the Don west of Stalingrad, in order to cover the crossings of the river leading to that city; and heavy fighting was in progress in the Kletskaya area.

Russians Retreat to Lower Don

Thus by the end of July the German offensive had reached the Don everywhere downstream of Voronezh, and the fighting was in progress in four main groups: (1) at Voronezh, where attacks and counter-attacks continued to be made without much change in the situation; (2) at the bend of the Don, covering the approaches to Stalingrad; (3) in the Tsimlyansk area, where German attempts to cross the river had been so far frustrated; (4) in the lower Don region, where crossings at Rostov had been effected and a wide German bridgehead established.



SUMMER CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA, TO JULY 31, 1942

A German offensive began in May, and Kerch in the S. was taken on the 23rd. Timoshenko on the 12th had opened a forestalling offensive in the Kharkov sector; on the 17th the enemy began a drive in the Izyum area, and a week later the Russians had to withdraw across the Donetz. The Germans also attacked between Byelgorod and Chuguyev. In the S., Sevastopol, heavily beset from June 5, fell on July 3. On June 11 the Germans attacked across the Donetz and took Kupyansk. The main enemy thrust came on the 28th eastwards from Kursk, and by July 7 fierce battles raged outside Voronezh. Checked here, the enemy wheeled S. and forced a Russian withdrawal from the Oskol to the lower Don and around Rostov. By July 27 Rostov and the right bank of the river had been lost to the enemy. Black arrows show German advance; white ones the Russian resistance.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

Meanwhile, as early as July 3 Sevastopol had been taken and strong German forces, including armoured divisions and a large number of aircraft, had thereby been liberated to take part in the attack on Rostov. Sevastopol was completely isolated, on the edge of enemy-occupied territory, and had no communication by land with the outside world. Fuel and food were brought in by sea, often at extreme peril by Soviet submarines. The enemy under Manstein had reached the outskirts after overrunning the Crimea in November 1941. An attempt to storm Sevastopol at this stage failed, and during December there was a protracted assault which cost the Germans about 45,000 casualties. It was early June before the enemy felt strong enough for his final offensive against the great fortress-port.

The Soviet defence chiefs were Vice-Admiral Oktyabrsky, Commander of the Black Sea Fleet; Major-General Petrov, commanding the land forces; and Divisional Commissar Kulakov. They were the last to leave when, on the orders of the Supreme Command, Sevastopol was evacuated by Soviet forces on July 3, 1942.

Air raids and prolonged shelling preceded the June assault. Groups of 40–60 German aircraft raided the city; the enemy fired more than 7,000 shells on June 2, with 9,000 on the 4th and 5,000 on the 6th. During these days they also hurled some 20,000 medium and heavy mines, and dropped 15,000 bombs. Dive-bombers attacked the



GERMAN SIEGE ARTILLERY

Heavy mortars such as this, ranging up to 24-inch calibre, were used in the final month-long battering of the Sevastopol forts in the great offensive of June 1942. An interesting feature of the present conflict is the degree to which mortars—from the little 2-inch weapon of the infantry to the giant shown above—have come into use in all fields.

Photo, Keystone

Russian anti-aircraft batteries, but the gunners stood their ground. On June 7 the enemy attacked along a front just over a mile long, having first showered 10,000 shells on this short sector. The first day's fighting brought them little success, and in the evening they sent into action their second echelons; next morning they also threw in their reserves. This battle, which had lasted 15 hours, cost the enemy more than 4,000 dead.

On the 8th the offensive was resumed with greater fury, with special pressure along the north-eastern sector, the Germans trying to take a short cut to the northern bay; a wedge a mile and a quarter in length was forced into the Soviet defences in one place. The Russian infantry stood up to the dive-bombers: on June 10 a rifle unit was attacked by 50 tanks supported by Stukas; no one wavered. In one day an infantry unit destroyed 28 German tanks—18 wrecked with anti-tank grenades.

The enemy resumed his tank attacks on June 11, but Russian artillery and rifle fire cut off his armour from the infantry. Against another Soviet unit the Germans threw in two infantry divisions supported by two tank battalions. Five times they attacked and on each occasion were driven back. In one day the enemy lost here 29 tanks and an entire infantry regiment. So for the rest of the month the conflict continued. The Germans had brought up an enormous number of aircraft, guns and men, and used them prodigally. The place had been reconnoitred by aircraft and photographed, so that the German assault troops knew just what were the vital objectives. These troops were armed with grenades and demolition charges and supported by mobile artillery of up to 88-mm. calibre; they also had ample aid from their dive-bombers.

The system of fortifications is shown in the plan in page 2260. Fort Maxim Gorki was the last to be taken; according to a German report it went on fighting even when the upper part had fallen into German hands and the battle front had moved forward some 1,400 yards. Still the Soviet soldiers in the deep underground storeys refused to surrender. The 13-inch guns continued to fire after enemy shock troops and storming guns had been brought up to close range—at 800 and even 500 yards. The same report stated that the Russian coastal batteries had turned their guns inland and shelled the attackers incessantly. Other strongpoints had been by-passed by the Germans, but went on firing in their rear.

When eventually the defence was overcome, it was only after every foot of the battlefield had been ploughed up by bombs and shells. Nothing but their names remained of nine infantry divisions and three Rumanian divisions. Sappers, men of the chemical corps, and even lorry drivers were thrown into the action by the enemy.

Glorious Role of Sevastopol

On July 3, at the orders of the Soviet Supreme Command, Soviet troops evacuated Sevastopol. From June 7 to July 3 they had lost 11,385 men killed, 21,099 wounded, and 8,300 missing. German casualties during this period were estimated at about 150,000, of whom 60,000 were killed; the total enemy casualties for the eight months of the siege must have been double these figures. The price paid by Hitler for Sevastopol was 100,000 German graves.

Elsewhere on the Russian front little of note had occurred. In order to relieve pressure on their southern armies and to prevent German formations being transferred to reinforce the offensive, the Russians had made some diversionary attacks without much success towards Orel and towards Rzhev, the northern bastion of the Vyasma salient. Other local attacks had been made by both sides, particularly in the Leningrad area, but the policy of the Germans was evidently to concentrate on the southern offensive, and to hold the remainder of their front defensively. The Russians clearly were not yet in a position to stage a large-scale counter-offensive, and they had already suffered heavy reverses in the south.

SOVIET ARMOURED TRAIN IN SUMMER CAMOUFLAGE

Garnished with branches for camouflage, this train is seen at the moment of an alert, with its gunners rushing to action stations. Typical armament included 75-mm. guns, multiple machine-gun batteries, and mortars, besides smaller weapons. The entire train was heavily armoured.

Photo, Planet News



WEST AFRICA'S VITAL ROLE IN 1942

Not only because of the bountiful resources of these territories but also for their strategic value the regions here grouped under the term West Africa became of outstanding importance as the months of 1942 went by. They provided a route along which weapons and munitions of all kinds could be carried through the air to our armies in the Middle East, while Allied control of the coastal belt safeguarded the sea passage down to the Cape

In this chapter the term West Africa will be considered as applying to the territory between latitude 5 degrees south and 15 degrees north and west of longitude 15 east—that is to say, the region bounded by a line which goes from Leopoldville in the Belgian Congo due north to Lake Chad and thence due west to Dakar (see map in p. 2270).

At the southern extremity of this stretch of territory there is the large port and growing town of Pointe Noire. Twenty-five years earlier it was an unknown headland on an abandoned coast. In 1929 ships unloaded in the open roadstead the material required for the railway, then still under construction, which should link Brazzaville, capital of French Equatorial Africa, with the sea. Nine years later the port of Pointe Noire was begun, a modern port then of mainly local importance, the French outlet for the produce of the Congo and rival to the Belgian port of Matadi. By 1942 Pointe Noire had begun to be of more than local importance, for when French Equatorial Africa decided to carry on the struggle under the Cross of Lorraine this new and well-equipped harbour became of great use as a refuelling base for Allied shipping, and the departure point of one of the trans-African arteries of Allied communication.

Pointe Noire

The main feature of the port is the great pier which extends the natural headland first towards the north-west and then curves towards the north. This pier, 190 yards wide at the shore end and 125 yards wide at its extremity, is protected from the open sea by a large curved breakwater, just over a mile long. On its inner side is a deep-water quay, 785 yards long and extended towards the south-east by a loading wharf. In addition, there is an interior jetty consisting of two arms, one perpendicular to the pier and one parallel with it. The arms enclose a surface of calm water 284 acres in extent. The port was opened in April 1939, but when war broke out the harbour was still lacking in nearly all its equipment. Later it was equipped with many cranes, a large hangar, and a system of railway lines connecting with the main station in the town.

In addition to its growth as a seaport Pointe Noire was also developed as an airport. On the eastern side of the harbour is an expanse of water, two miles long and calm in all weathers, which is ideally suited for seaplane traffic, while a mile or two beyond the town is a great airfield, much expanded by technical troops of the U.S. Army Air Corps, who landed there in September 1942.

The port of Pointe Noire is connected to Brazzaville by the Congo-Ocean railway, completed in 1930. Brazzaville, facing Leopoldville across that wide expanse of the Congo River known as Stanley Pool, was founded by the French explorer Count Savorgnan de Brazza, the rival of Stanley. Unknown to most Britons before the war, it later came into prominence as the African headquarters of the Fighting French. The radio station there played a big part in countering Axis and Vichy propaganda and in expounding the views of General de Gaulle. Later a new station was built which had much greater power.

The northern part of French Equatorial Africa is formed by the territory known as the Chad, which was the first of the French colonies to rally to the cause of General de Gaulle under its governor, M. Adolphe Eboué, now Governor-General of French Equatorial Africa. The Chad, twice as large as France but with only one-twentieth the population, made great efforts in both military and economic spheres. When those parts of the French colonial empire which supported General de Gaulle became the new French battlefields, the position of the Chad, directly facing the enemy, assured this territory a place of honour in the combats to come.



CHIEF PORT OF FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

Pointe Noire was connected to Brazzaville by railway in 1930 and is the French outlet for the produce of the Congo. A modern port was begun soon after, and when completed will have four deep-water quays, each over 400 feet long. The shallow-water quay, at which vessels are here seen discharging, serves meanwhile. The port is protected on the seaward side by a mole a mile long, providing deep-water accommodation for a length of 765 yards.

Fighting French Official Photograph



PLACE DE LA LIBERATION, FORT LAMY

At one side of the sandy plain known as the Place de la Libération (part of which is here shown) is the Camp Koufra, where Sarra soldiers were instructed how to use modern weapons. Fort Lamy was one of the links in the chain of landing grounds for British and American aircraft en route to the Sudan, and here it was that they stopped to refuel on the trans-African trip.

Photo, G. MacCormack

As to the manner in which the relatively small forces gathered in this area played their part, the story of the audacious raids on Mourzouk, Koufra and the Fezzan, and the final amazing march to Tripoli under the inspired leadership of General Leclerc, are sufficient evidence. (*See* illus., p. 1781.)

A generous tribute is due to the economic effort of this arid and sparsely populated territory. The cultivation of millet and rice, basic food of the African workers busily engaged on transforming the camel tracks of past ages into the highways of tomorrow, has been greatly increased. The production of groundnuts, the oil from which is of great value, rose from 20,000 tons in 1939 to 30,000 tons in 1942. In 1942 the cotton crops doubled those of 1939, and the whole crop was exported. But the principal source of wealth in the Chad is cattle raising, and here again enormous progress has been made, with, as a natural corollary, a notable increase in the amount of butter and hides available for export. The following figures give some idea of production in the Chad:—

Resources of Chad Territory

Exports of cotton, livestock, butter and hides.	1932— 3,000,000 lbs.
	1939—25,000,000 ,,
	1941—60,500,000 ,,

Fort Lamy calls for some mention. This outpost is situated on the River Shari just below its confluence with the Logone, on the site where Emile Gentil landed on the first French expedition from the Congo. The houses are of mud and thatch with one or two brick buildings for the government offices. Later a new barracks was erected, called the Camp Koufra, on one side of the vast sandy central square known today as the Place de la Libération, where contingents of Sarra soldiers were instructed in the use of modern arms. The prime value of Fort Lamy to the Allied cause was its existence as a vital link in the air communications between the British African territories to east and west. Its airfield was one of the chain of important landing grounds on the way to Khartoum, and many were the air convoys—British and American—which landed there to refuel during the eventful summer of 1942.

An industry of great importance at all times, and especially in wartime, is the production of palm-oil, and of this commodity British West Africa is the largest producer in the world. Before the war falling prices and the greater profits of the cocoa trade led to a decline in the oil-palm industry in the Gold Coast, but wartime demands have led to fuller exploitation of the existing palm-bearing areas. The French Cameroons is another big centre of the palm-oil industry, as is the Belgian Congo.

Oil-Palm Industry

Cotton is produced in considerable quantities in Nigeria. Although indigenous African cotton has been grown in Nigeria for centuries to supply the demands of the native hand-spinning and weaving industry, American cotton came almost entirely to replace the native variety. Cotton is also produced in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa, soil and climate being particularly suitable in the Ubangi-Shari region. The extension of cotton cultivation is developing in parts of the Belgian Congo.

The loss of the Malayan and other Far Eastern rubber plantations led to renewed efforts on the part of West

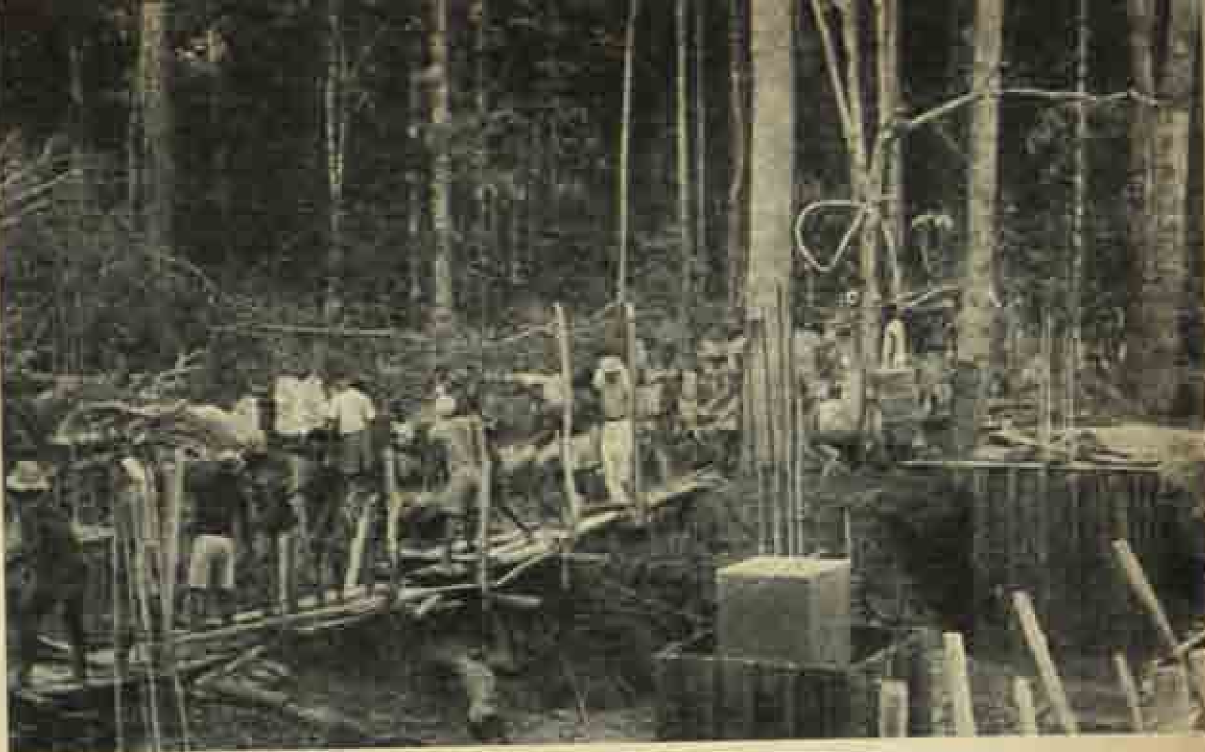


UNITED NATIONS' TERRITORIES IN WEST AFRICA

The region included under the collective name West Africa in the accompanying text comprises that between latitudes 5° S. and 25° N., and west of longitude 15° E. On account of its natural resources as well as its strategic value, it became of vital importance to the war effort of the United Nations during 1942. The British Cameroons, which it was not practicable to delineate on a map of this scale, is a strip of land between Nigeria and French Cameroons.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Félix Gardon*

Africa (where before the war rubber cultivation had been neglected owing to overwhelming competition in the Far East) to intensify her production. In the British colonies the native races were encouraged to collect as much wild rubber as possible, but this of course could not compare either in quality or quantity with plantation rubber, most of which now comes from Liberia and the Cameroons.





RUBBER FROM THE CAMEROONS FOR THE ALLIES

Top, in the Plantation de la Sanagra, at Dizangué, where a wharf is being built in ferro-concrete on the bank of the river Wurri to facilitate transportation of the rubber to Duala on the coast. Below, collecting the latex from rubber trees in a plantation in the British Cameroons, a narrow belt of territory on the eastern border of Nigeria between that country and French Cameroons.

Photos, G. MacCormack, Pictorial Press

Liberia, a free and independent negro Republic constituted in 1847, was founded as part of a scheme to settle freed African slaves. It is an original member of the League of Nations. After attending the Casablanca Conference of Allied leaders in January 1943, President Roosevelt flew to Liberia in an American Army bomber. Alighting at the Roberts airfield near Monrovia, the capital, he was met by the President, Edwin Barclay, and inspected United States troops stationed in the neighbourhood. There followed discussions with President Barclay, and Mr. Roosevelt then took off for his further flight across the Atlantic to consult with President Getulio Vargas, of Brazil.

Liberia is almost an untapped source of mineral and agricultural wealth. Coffee is the main product, but palm-oil, palm kernels, anatto and rice are also produced. In the forests there are a score of species of rubber-yielding vines and trees.

Natural Wealth of Liberia

The mineral resources are scarcely known, but there are large deposits of iron ore. In Liberia the Firestone Company of America have big plantations, the yield of which was stepped up by every conceivable means, including double tapping, which, although shortening the life of the tree, has been estimated by Firestone technicians to give a yield of 70 per cent more than the ordinary single tapping. In the French Cameroons, also, much progress was made, especially at the extensive Plantation de la Sanagra, at Dizangué, near Edea, where the factory has been increased in size and new planting has been carried out on a large scale.

There are many long-abandoned rubber plantations in the Cameroons, once worked by the Germans, which might be brought into bearing again, but local interests were reluctant to embark upon the labour and expense of putting them into condition owing to the not unreasonable fear that after the war renewed competition from the Far East, coupled with developments in the production of synthetic rubber, might ruin their markets.

The Gabun's contribution to the war effort naturally took the form of wood, for the Gabun is richly forested and the gigantic trunks of okoumé, which can often be seen floating offshore at Port Gentil like Brobdingnagian rafts, are eventually transformed into a thousand and one articles of military value. It was the Germans who first saw the economic value of the Gabun forests, and before the outbreak of the Second Great War the greater part of the timber exports of that colony were taken by Hamburg.

With the loss of the tin deposits in Malaya it became imperative to exploit to the full other sources. One of these was the tin fields of Northern Nigeria. The existence of tin in that region was known in 1885, but the exact location of the fields was not discovered until the beginning of this century, and 1903 was the year which saw the inauguration of what has since become one of the colony's most important industries. The industry became stabilized about 1910, the intervening years having been spent



DAKAR: NAVAL BASE AND COMMERCIAL PORT

In tonnage Dakar comes next among French ports after Marseilles and Le Havre, having a fine modern harbour with three miles of quays and eight moles in deep water where the largest ships can safely berth. A naval base since 1898, it was from Dakar that the French battleship 'Richelieu' sailed to New York for refitting early in 1943.

more in prospecting than in actual mining; 774 tons of tin were won in that year, after which the industry made rapid strides. In 1929 the output of the Nigerian fields reached 15,220 tons. In 1933, as a result of the international tin restriction agreement, production fell to about 5,000 tons, but in 1936 13,432 tons were won, and it is probable that the stimulation of war needs later increased that figure considerably.

A certain amount of gold is also produced in Nigeria, but development is still confined to the alluvial stage.

Gold in Nigeria

Gold output from Nigeria in 1936 was valued at £234,000. Coal is mined at Enugu. The gold deposits in the Gold Coast are still not fully exploited, but production in 1936 was valued at nearly £2,000,000. Of great importance to the war effort have been the Gold Coast's exports of manganese and bauxite, and diamonds are also found in worth-while quantities.

In Sierra Leone the principal minerals of economic value are gold and platinum (found in small quantities), and there are large deposits of iron ore. There has been considerable development in the production of iron ore from the Marampa mines, and large consignments were exported from the beginning of the war. Diamonds were found on the banks of the Gbobora River during a geological survey in 1930, and a prospecting licence was granted to the Consolidated African Selection Trust. In 1936 the output was 616,200 carats, valued at £725,000. Industrial diamonds, used for cutting or abrasive operations, are of great importance in war industries.

Freetown, in Sierra Leone, played an important part in the Battle of the Oceans, since it was the headquarters of the Flag Officer Commanding West Africa, and its magnificent natural harbour provided anchorage for large ocean convoys. Of such strategic importance is this port that it is surprising more was not done to provide it with harbour facilities. There were no wharves where large ships could go alongside, no dry dock: only an ancient narrow-gauge railway with few sidings, and a few cranes. Very different was the state of affairs at Dakar, where the French built a magnificent port on an unpromising site. Thanks to the Allied operations of November 1942 the resources of this important harbour and strategic base were subsequently used to the utmost in the cause of the United Nations.

In 1862 the Messageries Impériales obtained permission to build a small jetty at Dakar. In 1942 there was a fine modern harbour with three miles of quays, and eight large moles in deep water where the largest vessels could come alongside. For tonnage Dakar holds third place among French ports after Marseilles and Le Havre.

The harbour installation is modern. In addition to the arsenal and graving dock there are 12 miles of railway line along the dockside, one portion of which is linked up with the town station at the head of the Dakar-Niger line, and the other with a large marshalling yard and goods station. A system of underground pipe-lines can deliver heavy oil to the berthed ships at a prodigious speed, and a special mooring system makes for safety during the tropical storms which occur at certain seasons.

Dakar has been a fleet base since 1898, and it was from there that the French battleship "Richelieu" sailed for New York to be refitted in the early part of 1943. From that port, too, sailed many shiploads of French troops of the French West African command on their way to North Africa to take part in the Tunisian campaign.

Bathurst, the capital of the Gambia, became of considerable importance as a seaplane base. The Germans were fully alive to its importance in this field long before the war, for it was at Bathurst that the Lufthansa established one of its terminals.

President Roosevelt at Bathurst

Bathurst has made history in another way not generally known, for it was here, in the early hours of January 14, 1943, that President Roosevelt alighted from his flying boat on his way to the historic meeting at Casablanca. It was from Bathurst, too, that he departed towards the end of the month, after having spent a couple of days aboard the American cruiser "Memphis," then lying in the Gambia River.

The Gambia was the scene of much troop movement during the autumn of 1942, when the big bluff of an impending attack on Dakar was staged—a bluff which, ably supported by propaganda in many fields, successfully hoodwinked the Axis as to the real intentions of the Allies in North Africa.

The name of Takoradi conveys little to the average Briton, yet this Gold Coast port, with its deep-sea harbour (completed in 1928), played a large part in ensuring the North African victory. Takoradi has fully justified the millions which were spent on it between 1921 and 1928, for it is the only real harbour between Dakar and Pointe Noire. On the West Coast of Africa, where for hundreds and hundreds of miles there is nothing but sand-barred and surf-beaten coast, accommodation for ocean-going vessels is available at few places, and ports in the English sense of the word are rare.

During the fluctuating fortunes of the Western Desert battles the greatest problem facing the Allied High Command was to get supplies to the Cairo area. Unable to get through the Mediterranean, the vital convoys had to make the 12,000-mile trip round the Cape. This took many weeks longer, but for heavy equipment it was essential, because there were no roads across



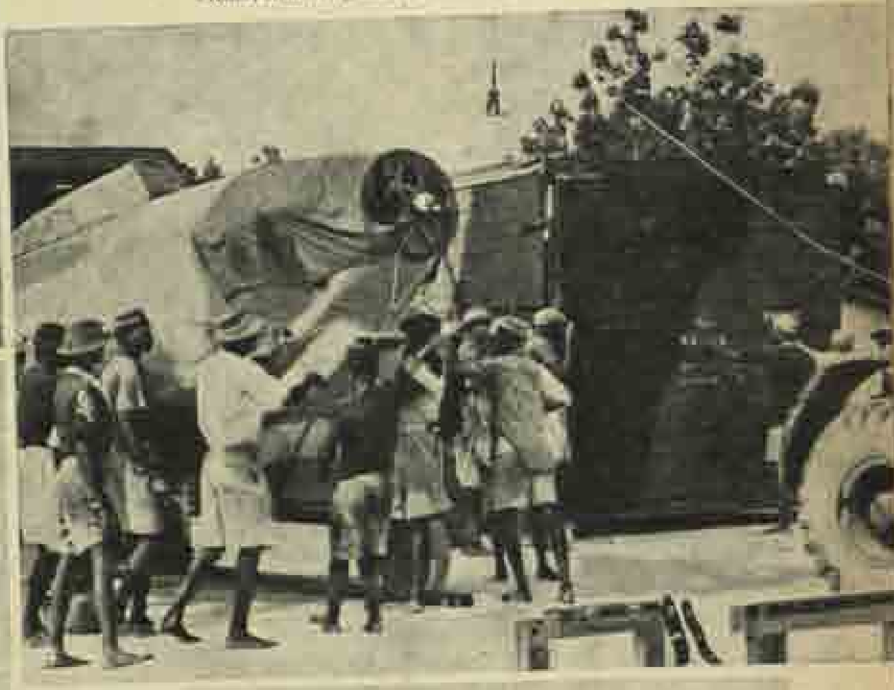


THE MAKING OF A WEST AFRICAN AIRFIELD

1. Native workmen fell palm trees to clear the site. 2. Tarring and gravelling one of the runways. 3. The runway is rolled to consolidate and level the surface: the driver has a sunshade made of spreading palm leaves. At length, when this tract of tropical forest had been transformed into an aerodrome, the ship-borne aircraft—in this case (4) a Hurricane—were unpacked and assembled. 5. Checking over before Hurricanes take off for the long trip across Africa to the Middle East from this vital link in the supply chain.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright







Africa capable of taking this traffic; existing roads were mostly impassable during the long rainy season. Thousands of aircraft were flown across the continent from Takoradi to Cairo, where they helped to build up that air superiority which led to the final successful advance from El Alamein.

Very little was heard in Britain of the work of the Air Delivery Unit which ferried these planes across Africa, but a special debt of gratitude is due to the ferry pilots for work which was of the utmost importance, was at all times arduous, and was never spectacular.

For months on end they flew new "crates" across the continent, and as soon as one delivery was effected they would return for more, their only relaxation being an occasional two-day rest on a Nile houseboat. Through tropical storms and over burning desert they carried on with their wearying job, seeing that their comrades, the fighter pilots of the Middle East, got their aircraft with the minimum of delay.

Takoradi, Lagos, Kano, Maiduguri, Fort Lamy, El Geneina, El Fashr, Khartoum, Luxor: these were the stepping-stones towards that Allied air supremacy which was to enable the Eighth Army eventually to make its final glorious advance. The prospect before a pilot who was compelled to make a forced landing or bale out while on this route was not a pleasant one, for the interior of Africa is desolate and hostile. Dangers abounded, and a lost man, if chance did not lead his feet into the way of a friendly native tribe, might well die of thirst or hunger.

But to the pilots of A.D.U. it was just a job of work like any other. Over mountain ranges and vast tracts of desert British, Australian, South African and Polish pilots performed their arduous task of ferrying the planes which gave the Allies supremacy in the Western Desert. The airfield facilities could not be compared with those in Britain. At places like El Fashr and El Geneina, tiny oases in the Sudan, there was simply a dusty runway, a rest house for pilots and maintenance crews, and a few native huts. The A.D.U. groused and cursed the fate which had given them that job to do instead of shooting down Messerschmitts, but they got on with it. They should be remembered when the final history of the North African battles is written.

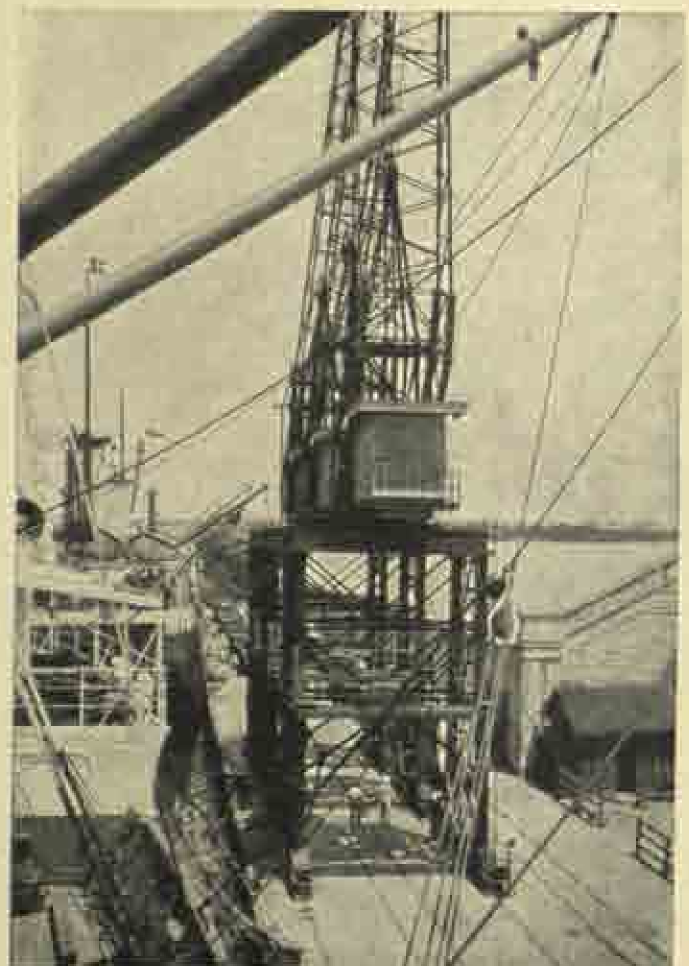
No mention of the wartime activities of the British West African colonies would be complete without a reference to the work of the "Waffs," as the Royal West African Field Force was popularly called. It was not a part of the Regular Army, but a separate military force maintained by the various Colonial governments of West Africa.

Each colony had its detachment, and the battalions were greatly increased after the beginning of the war. Very smart were these native troops, and their drill was impeccable. All the officers and some of the N.C.O.s were British, the officers in peacetime being seconded from their units in the Regular Army. The fighting reputation of the Waffs is high, and there is little doubt that had trouble developed in West Africa they would have given an excellent account of themselves.

As it was, the existence of this highly trained force released thousands of other soldiers for duties elsewhere. Some details also should be set down concerning the magnificent work carried out in the tropical waters off the West African coast by the corvettes and little motor launches. Flotillas of M.L.s based on Bathurst, Freetown and Lagos were of inestimable value in escorting convoys along the coastal waters, as were also the corvettes assigned to this duty. Life in these small ships was exceptionally trying just off the Equator. Quarters were cramped, and the heat of the engines, which occupied much ship space, coupled with the prevailing high temperature and humidity, made the atmosphere aboard resemble that of a Turkish bath pervaded by oil fumes.

Sleep in cabins was impossible. When the deadlights were fastened over the scuttles after dark and the hatches were closed, the atmosphere below deck, torrid enough in the daytime, became impossible. Consequently, hammocks were slung wherever possible on deck and both officers and ratings slept in the open.

There were many troubles which beset these small craft in African waters. Electrical equipment is soon affected by the climatic conditions, and corrosion is rapid in the hot, humid air. Provision of fresh water was another problem on a long trip, owing to limited stowage; and it must be remembered that around the West African coast, surf-barred as it is, there are hundreds of miles between ports. Another source of trouble from an operational viewpoint was the extreme rapidity of marine growth on the hull, incrustations which seriously diminish speed. But these small ships have an exceptionally fine record in convoy work, and the losses of merchantmen under their surveillance were extremely low.



TAKORADI, ON THE GOLD COAST

Takoradi, the only large harbour between Dakar and Pointe Noire, was built mainly between 1921 and 1928. Aircraft in crates were delivered here by ship and then flown across Africa to Cairo by the Air Delivery Unit to take their place among the squadrons battling with Rommel's forces. Above, giant cranes at the dockside, Takoradi.

Photo, E.N.A.

MALTA, GIBRALTAR AND CYPRUS, 1942

Malta, as the author Kenneth Williams well says, was the hub of the Mediterranean, and its story during the months from May to December, 1942—covered in this Chapter—was a thrilling and inspiring one. After the punishment it had to take with little means of hitting back there came at last the change to an offensive role, and eventually the lifting of its long blockade by sea and air. The parallel stories of Gibraltar and Cyprus are also given here

DIFFICULT as had been the position of the British in the Mediterranean in 1940 and 1941, as a result of the entry into the war of Italy and the disappearance of French aid, in the year 1942 it was incomparably more difficult. In the extreme west and east, at Gibraltar and Cyprus respectively, the situation in the circumstances was satisfactory enough, but the plight of Malta caused acute anxiety. The policy of holding and sustaining this central Colony had been laid down, however, and there could be no thought of going back on it. In May 1942, as recorded in Chapter 160, Lord Gort succeeded General Sir William Dobbie as Governor; but the change signified no alteration in policy. The heavy German air attacks on the island in the preceding December and January had already indicated the change in Malta's role from the defensive to the offensive.

Sir William Dobbie

Sir William Dobbie, the outgoing Governor, was a very gallant but sick man; soon after he arrived back in England he underwent an operation for appendicitis. There could be no better successor than Lord Gort to be in charge of what was nothing less than an aerially besieged fortress. He inherited from his predecessor a great legacy of gallantry, and it was notable that both Governors had one thing in common which appealed intensely to the Maltese—a deep religious conviction.

Even before General Dobbie had left Malta the R.A.F. in the island had wrought great damage on Axis convoys going to reinforce Rommel's armies in North Africa. So successful were these sorties, indeed, that the Germans took over from the Italians the responsibility of quieting Malta. This job they assumed with typical Teutonic thoroughness—a thoroughness which read curiously in the light of subsequent Nazi pretensions that the German High Command never believed in the fundamental importance of the North African theatre. For a time Malta was overwhelmed by the weight of German planes based on Sicily. By night and day the Luftwaffe bombed the airfields and the docks, continuing of course their usual terroristic bombing of targets of no military significance.

There is no question that the Nazis—to use their own phrase—tried to "rub out" Malta. In 1942 no fewer than 773 enemy aircraft were destroyed (182 by ground fire) at a cost to the R.A.F. of 195 planes; 89 of our pilots were saved. During this attempt to neutralize Malta, the enemy dropped over 12,000 tons of bombs on the island. Well might Air Vice-Marshal Sir Hugh Lloyd—he was knighted on July 31—who had been A.O.C. since May 1941 and was replaced in July 1942 by Air Vice-Marshal Sir Keith Park—knighted November 24, 1942—say in his farewell address to the R.A.F. in the Colony: "We are stronger than we have ever been before. Our Malta fighter force is the best in the world. Our contribution to the war has been very great. In the future, when people mention Malta, you will say with pride 'I was there.'"

The growth of the R.A.F. in Malta was remarkable. When Italy entered the war there were said to be only three Gloucester Gladiators then based on the island. They were given by the Maltese the nicknames of Faith, Hope and Charity, and brought down many Italian planes. Afterwards Hurricane fighters were steadily supplied to the island. More airfields were constructed and, despite constant bombing by the enemy, they were kept in condition. But the struggle to keep the fighters in the air was no easy one. In March 1942 Spitfires went into action for the first time over Malta and, in the words of Sir Hugh Lloyd, "dealt the enemy a blow from which he has never recovered to this day."

Malta's Air Reinforcements

Air reinforcements continued to arrive. Bombers could be flown direct, but fighters and ammunition had to be brought to Malta by ships in convoy. It was announced in July that the American aircraft carrier "Wasp" had made several successful ferry trips carrying fighter



MALTA'S NEW A.O.C. INSPECTS R.A.F. STATIONS

On July 18, 1942, Air Vice-Marshal Sir Hugh Lloyd handed over the Malta Command to Air Vice-Marshal Sir Keith Park, who is here seen making a tour of inspection soon after his appointment as A.O.C. The launch serving for the time being as a water-taxi is one belonging to the Air-Sea Rescue Service of the R.A.F.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright







THE ARMY AIDS THE R.A.F. ON MALTA'S AIRFIELDS

Glowing tributes have been paid to British infantry who garrisoned Malta, for their all-round handiness and efficiency in a hundred diverse tasks. Here is one aspect of their work: top, right, with aircraftmen they refuel and reload a Spitfire; lower left, loading and making up shell-belts for fighter aircraft. At top, left, a Spitfire pilot reaches his machine at the double after an alert

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

aircraft; on one occasion some of our fighters took off from this carrier to fly straight into battle. These Spitfires forced the enemy to modify his tactics. He sent over a small number of bombers with a large formation of fighter escorts. But Malta, given fuel and ammunition, was by now equal to any stratagems of the enemy.

By the end of 1942 there were airmen in Malta from many parts of the Empire and from the U.S.A. Also, in addition to Spitfires, Beaufighters and other British machines, the R.A.F. now had American Martin Marylands and Baltimores. The airfields were kept in repair jointly by Army personnel, who sometimes had to roll them for twenty-four hours on end, and by the Maltese, who worked on—often during air raids—filling in craters and rolling out the landing grounds. Indeed, the Army in Malta, though it came into contact with the enemy only when serving the anti-aircraft guns, behaved most gallantly, helping both the other Services. Lord Gort called the infantry in Malta "the finest in the world"—a unique tribute to a garrison force.

Newest Fighters and Bombers

The veil of secrecy surrounding the composition of the Mediterranean garrisons—a shroud very necessary for security reasons, for the enemy would have given much to know the precise state of affairs at Malta, Gibraltar and Cyprus—was lifted only fitfully. In Gibraltar, where Lieut.-Gen. F. N. Mason-Macfarlane arrived as Governor in June, the infantry included men from the West Country, from Merseyside and from the Highlands, assisted by tunnellers from Durham, South Wales and Manitoba. Here the work of perfecting an underground fortress went steadily on. Underneath the two and a half miles of Gibraltar a new city was built.

These subterranean passages were not for purposes of refuge only. In high halls, which opened out at every 50 yards or so, there were constructed workshops, storehouses, generating stations, and distilling plant to make the garrison independent of rain water, their normal and fluctuating source of water supply.

Below ground were also built hospitals and operating theatres, roads and railways, bakeries, libraries and cinemas. So vast indeed was the accumulation of stores by the end of the year that one observer predicted that, if Gibraltar's stores of food and materials of all kinds were not needed for withstanding a siege—a prospect which seemed steadily to recede—they would be made available as the first food dumps on the Continent of Europe for the victims of Nazi invasion.

There were in Gibraltar no black-out restrictions, a precaution that in any case would have been useless, in view of the lights of neighbouring La Linea—the Spanish town—which could provide a certain guide to enemy bombers. Food was not short, though most of it, except fruit and vegetables (brought in from Spain), had to be shipped from the United Kingdom. Rationing extended to petrol and clothes. The morale of the garrison remained unexceptionable, and an eagle eye was kept for the rare enemy bomber which approached the citadel. The garrison produced its own monthly magazine, The Rock.

No Black-out at Gibraltar

In Cyprus, of which the garrison included men both from the United Kingdom and from the overseas Empire, everyone was very much on his toes. Tension in the island inevitably varied in accordance with the changing war situation. With the new threat to the Suez Canal and the Eastern Mediterranean which developed in 1942, Cyprus became once more a forward base against enemy centres in Greece, Crete and Rhodes. Until the battle of El Alamein in October, Cyprus was extremely busy. When the Duke of Gloucester visited it in May 1942 he found abundant reinforcements, new fortifications and new aerodromes—these last largely in the broad treeless plain of Messoria. He could further see that R.A.F. fighters from Syria could cover the island. There was constant

development in the defences, built principally with local labour, the spirit of which was indicated by the fact that the villagers gave one day's work free in each week.

As part of the work of A.R.P., which had been made compulsory for men up to the age of 43 early in the year, shelters were tunnelled in the principal towns. The Civil Defence scheme was in fact so well organized that it was considered second to none in the Middle East. There was no severe test for these services, for most enemy flights over the island were confined to reconnaissance. The evacuation scheme for women and children, moving them from the towns to the hills, which had been begun in 1941, was allowed to lapse.

There was a food problem, but it was by no means as acute as, for example, in Malta. Fruit and vegetables were plentiful, though meatless days were introduced. But there was no rationing. An additional 11,000 acres were brought under cultivation in 1942 by means of irrigation schemes; and plans for cultivating another 17,000 acres were well advanced. The chief trouble in Cyprus, from this point of view, was the periodic shortage of the rainfall. In summer the rivers dry up before reaching the sea. Other problems arose from soil erosion and deforestation. With these the Government grappled resolutely, and provided grants for afforestation, anti-erosion work, and vine cultivation.

Cyprus had Food Problems

Despite anti-inflation measures the cost of living in Cyprus had risen by the end of the year to 142 per cent above the pre-war level. But the Government assumed control of all essential imports, distributing them at fixed prices and pegging the price of bread (the staple food of the people) by means of a subsidy. The Administration also extended subsidies to other vital commodities and hoped, not in vain, to reduce the cost of living.

The hub of the Mediterranean, of course, was Malta—thorn in the flesh of the Axis so long as they tried to maintain supplies to their North African armies. Malta's role in the strategy of the war may be summarized under five heads: (1) active cooperation with the Navy in action or in convoy; (2) effective interference with enemy supply lines to the Middle East and to North Africa; (3) destructive raids on enemy bases; (4) drawing off or containing considerable enemy forces; and (5) taking steady toll of enemy aircraft and shipping. Under each of these heads Malta emerged triumphant.

Though it may be difficult to say exactly when Malta switched from the defensive to the offensive—the process was imperceptible—her whole war story was of epic quality. That quality could not have been achieved without the full co-operation of her civilian population. Malta, it has well been said, stands on four legs—the three Fighting Services and the native population. How did the inhabitants fare in 1942? Everything was in short supply except courage and determination. There were but two newspapers—The Times of Malta, the English daily paper, and its Maltese counterpart, Birka. These journals, both produced by Miss Mabel Strickland, missed not a single issue and, despite constant dislocation of transport, were almost always ready for reading at the breakfast table.

Anyone in Malta could listen to broadcasts, provided he had an adequate receiving set, but the island's special system was that known as re-diffusion. The transmitting station was connected by wires to the individual loud-speakers. The system was adopted for reasons of security: nothing broadcast in this way could be picked up outside the island. Although the parcel mail to Malta was severely limited, the

Malta's Broadcasting System



CONVOYS SAVED MALTA FROM STARVATION

The food situation gave cause for much anxiety until the Eighth Army won back Libyan bases from which fighter protection could be afforded to our convoys which, hitherto, had reached the island only after desperate battles with Axis air and sea forces. Right, a convoy being unloaded by night (end of 1942). Below, left, milk being distributed after a severe raid on Valetta; below right, hoisting up grain from an underground store (ruined church of St. Publius in background).

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





air mail operated with remarkable smoothness and the garrison received letters from home with fair regularity. But, of course, the export restrictions imposed in the United Kingdom and the import restrictions in Malta itself, together with the difficulty of carrying goods by sea in bulk (including not only articles for sale, but newspapers for the troops), resulted in a dislocation of the island's normal life.

Details of Malta's food supply were something that the enemy would



MALTA'S GEORGE CROSS

H.M. the King had awarded it to Malta on April 16, 1942. It was ceremonially presented in the Palace Square, Valetta, on September 13. Top, General Lord Gort, the Governor, has handed it (in exhibition case) to Sir George Borg, Chief Justice of Malta, who is seen below, left, carrying it to the plinth where it was placed on show (below, right), together with the Royal message in the King's own hand.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; W. J. Jones, Malta





much like to have learned, and they were therefore not published. Suffice it to say that the bread ration was ten ounces daily; four-fifths of the famous goats, which used to supply much milk, had to be destroyed in order that horses, essential to transport, might have sufficient fodder; every inch of available ground, such as playing fields and recreational centres, was turned over to growing such things as potatoes and carrots. The water difficulty became particularly grim in summertime, but was mitigated by a visit from Dr. Bailey from the United Kingdom, who advised on the possibilities of deep boring.

In the summer of 1942 Malta had no light or power, for there was no fuel available. On the question of light, it is worth recording that the Governor introduced double summer-time, only to find that the Maltese, who seldom got to bed much before midnight, insisted on getting up for the 4.30 Mass, and so complained that they could not get enough sleep. When it was suggested to them that the hour of Mass might be advanced to 5.30, they said that that was impossible, for their fathers and forefathers had always had 4.30 Mass. Summer-time consequently had to be abandoned.

Educational problems, to which Lord Gort gave great thought—for even during the war he was resolved to plan for the future, when the emigrating Maltese would have to know at least one more language than their own—were really grave. Schools, which had earlier been taken over for A.R.P. and other duties, were re-opened, despite a painful shortage (the effect of bombing) of slates, books, chalks, pencils, paper, and blackboards. Gradually these things were supplied from stocks in the Middle East. The Governor obtained the services of Mr. Ellis, of the L.C.C., and so was able to get immediate needs satisfied to some extent. The British Institute, moreover, under Mr. Wickham, did excellent work and attracted people of all classes to its lectures. Communal feeding was introduced and the fuel for the feeding kitchens was often wood from bomb-ruined houses—doors, window frames, and so on. The owners did not like it, but the community benefited.

As for protection against air raids, the underground shelters, scores of miles of which were tunnelled in 1942, served admirably. In all these shelters the Maltese placed little shrines, for they would allow nothing to interrupt their supplications. They prayed, not for







UNQUENCHABLE SPIRIT OF THE ISLANDERS

The photograph at top, left, typifies the indomitable morale of the Maltese under their protracted ordeal—children crowding on to the bastions to welcome an entering convoy. Nothing daunted these brave people built huts of fallen stones and carried on; centre, left, in the old city of Senglea, one of the most devastated districts. Top, right, a trim little shop on a bombed site; this and the lower photograph, of the ruined Opera House, are eloquent of the destruction wrought by unremitting air attack.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Sport & General, Associated Press



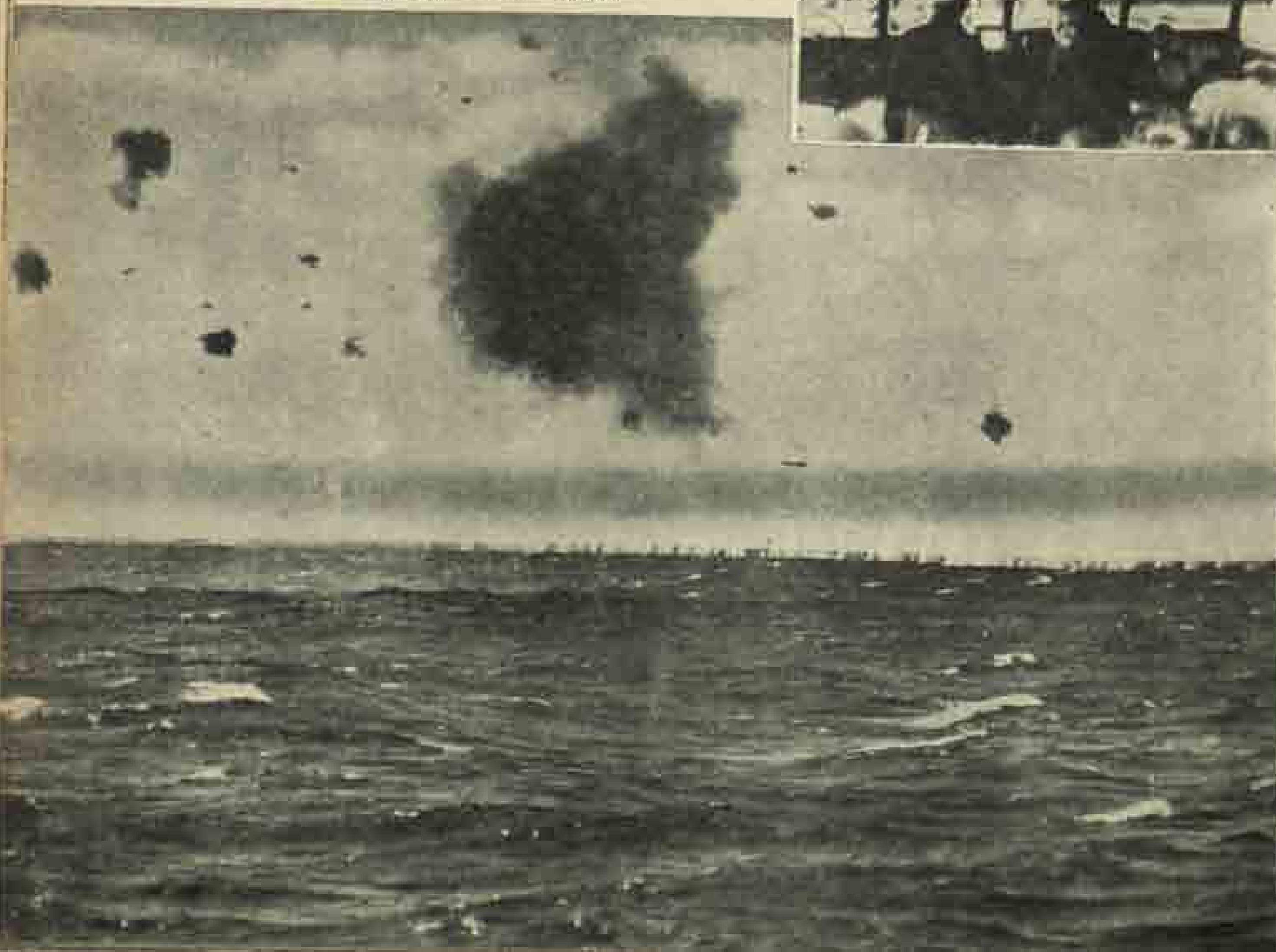




CONVOY FROM ALEXANDRIA GOES THROUGH

In early April, 1942, this convoy from Alexandria, like all others endeavouring to succour Malta and bring her much-needed supplies, had to fight its way through against submarines, surface ships and aircraft. The Italian fleet tried to stop its progress but failed. Top, a British destroyer opens up with her guns through a smoke-screen; right, the guns of one of our cruisers come into action. The vivid photograph below shows an Italian torpedo-bomber attempting to evade the shells from a destroyer; one minute later the enemy was hit and crashed into the sea.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





GIBRALTAR'S GOVERNOR

Lieut.-General F. N. Mason-Macfarlane, C.B., D.S.O., M.C. (front row, centre), arrived in Gibraltar in June 1942 to succeed Lord Gort on the latter's transference to Malta. He is seen here with his personal staff. Front row, left, Major R. M. Shephard Capurro, O.B.E.; right, Commander C. Brown, D.S.O. Back row: Major J. K. Quayle, R.A.; Squadron Leader A. K. Gatward, D.F.C.; Captain D. C. Woodward.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

their own safety, but for the sailors in the ships, the pilots in the skies, the men behind the guns. Their spirit was truly remarkable. It was because of this loyal spirit that the proclamation of martial law never became necessary. The Maltese served wholeheartedly in the police, the A.R.P., and rescue services. They were on the spot in every raid. Nor were the women behindhand. They served as nurses, as members of St. John Ambulance, or as V.A.D.s.

Unloading Food Convoys

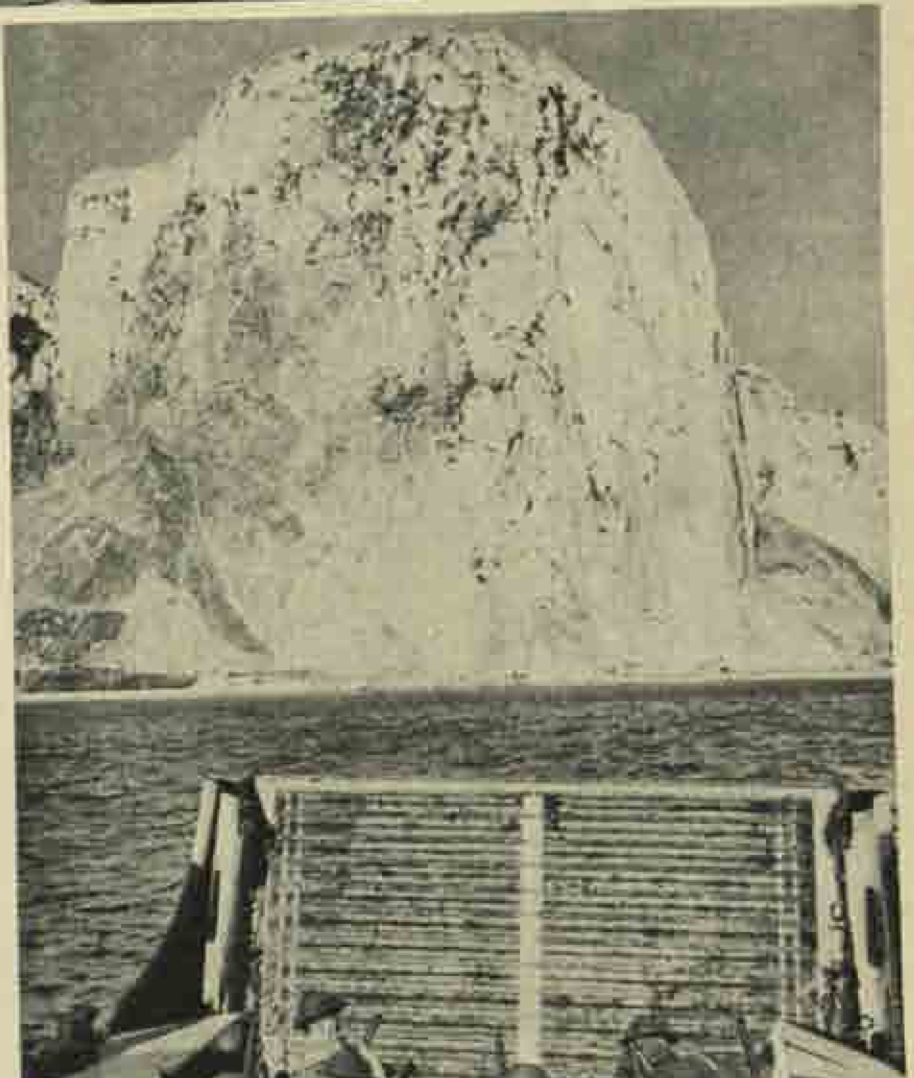
Once the convoys got into Malta it was, generally speaking, a question of turning them round again as quickly as possible. In the work of unloading the Maltese joined with a will. In the much-bombed dockyards, too, they worked their hardest to get damaged ships going again; their patchwork—for often it could be little more than that—will long be remembered, for it enabled famous ships to make their way to Alexandria, to Gibraltar, or even to America for more complete and uninterrupted repairs.

Yet for all the gallantry of the garrison and the courage of the native population, the island was often in desperate straits. The weight of Axis air pressure on the narrows was terrible. The testing time of spring was followed by an equally trying summer. In June an attempt was made to bring succour by means of simultaneous convoys from Gibraltar (under the command of Vice-Admiral Curteis) and Alexandria (under Rear-Admiral Vian). Both were roughly handled, though they accounted for many ships and planes of the enemy. Vian's convoy was forced to turn back, through shortage of fuel. The relief brought to Malta was but temporary. Again in August another convoy was

COMMANDO EXERCISE

In the autumn of 1940 the Gibraltar Fortress Independent Company was formed—a platoon each from the King's, Devons, Somersets, and Black Watch; in addition R.E. and Signals sections were similarly provided, while the Intelligence section and Company H.Q. were drawn from the Royal Artillery. Photograph shows an invasion exercise, the landing craft approaching the towering 'Rock' (summer, 1942).

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright







THE DEFENDERS OF CYPRUS

Cyprus was for long in the front line of Mediterranean defence, and tension was high all through those critical months of 1942, as the tide of war surged towards Egypt and then turned westward again. Top, R.A.F. ground staff refuel a Hurricane fighter. Below, anti-aircraft gun position in an ancient castle of the Crusaders. This unit is composed of Jews from the Palestinian "Foreign Legion."

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

sent out, but before it reached Malta it had lost the aircraft carrier "Eagle" and the cruiser "Manchester," in addition to merchant ships.

During 1942, in trying to succour Malta, the British lost three cruisers, nine destroyers and two aircraft carriers—apart from merchant ships. Such grievous losses made inevitable the question whether they could be afforded. Some observers thought that casualties of this magnitude would prove too heavy even for the Allies, and prophesied that without some radical transformation of the Mediterranean position Malta might be starved out.

Fortunately, there was no need to test that prophecy. In October 1942 the victorious advance from El Alamein began. It was followed in November by the Anglo-American landings in North Africa. This so changed the position of Malta vis-à-vis the Axis that, before the end of the year, Mr. R. G. Casey, Minister of State in Cairo, could announce in London that Malta had received substantial replenishments to her stocks, and that the Navy had done this without serious interference from the enemy. The boot was now on the other foot. Malta was saved, and though, until the position in North Africa was absolutely clear, she had to watch for clouds as well as sunshine, she felt that the worst of her prolonged ordeal was over.

By the end of the year Malta could claim that three vital tasks imposed on her had been fulfilled. These were: the security of communications by sea on which depended her supplies; defence against air attacks; and the maintenance of internal security. Their achievement was something on which Generals might shake hands with privates, Admirals with A.B.s, Air Marshals with aircraftmen, and Governors with the humblest civilian.

In recognition of the splendid work of all during the preceding months of peril His Majesty the King had awarded the George Cross to Malta on April 16, 1942. The Cross was officially presented by Lord Gort on September 13, the ceremony taking place in the Palace Square of Valetta. After being exhibited in the towns and villages of the island it was placed in St. John's Cathedral.



OUTSIDE KHARKOV

Soviet light machine-gunners, after breaking into an enemy-held village on the outskirts of Kharkov, *fire* at a German emplacement. Kharkov, third city of Russia, had been taken by the enemy on October 29, 1941. Timoshenko's offensive in this area began on May 12 of the following year, its object being to forestall the main German offensive in the south which, in fact, materialized about the same time. Kharkov was not destined yet to be liberated, and its travail continued for another 12 months.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official





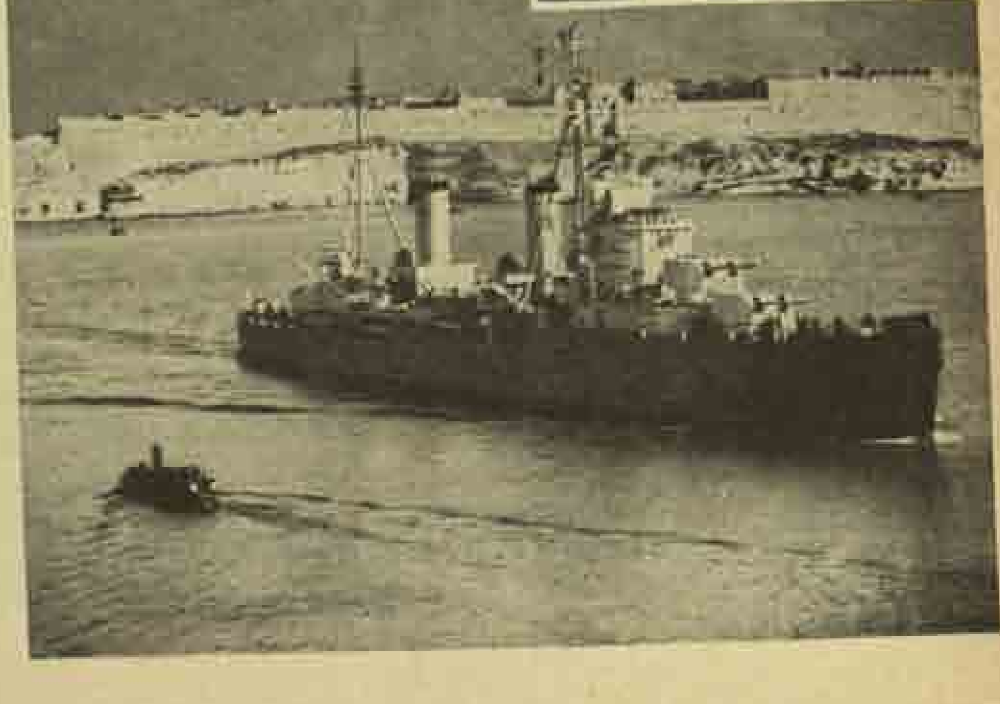
FREETOWN, SIERRA LEONE

The top photograph well displays the fine natural harbour of Freetown, in which large convoys could muster for the voyage across the Atlantic. It was the headquarters of the Flag Officer Commanding West Africa. The busy waterside market, and the native dinghies of the buyers and sellers of produce, make a lively scene. Coloured West Africans played a full part in the defence of their homeland. In the anti-aircraft batteries of the West African Frontier Force (a team seen below) nearly all the specialized work was done by Africans.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Pictorial Press







H.M.S. 'PEPPERPOT' AFTER HER ORDEAL

'Penelope' was the cruiser's real name, but she was so battered and holed by bomb splinters while escorting a convoy to Malta and during a fortnight's stay in harbour there that her crew gave her the apt nickname. Note the many holes in her port side (above), plugged with wood. Below, the vessel is seen entering Valetta harbour. Her commander, Captain A. D. Nicholl, D.S.O., R.N., was honoured by the award of the C.B.E. in June 1942. Inset, he is congratulating A.B. Ray de Moulpied, also of H.M.S. 'Penelope,' who had just been decorated with the D.S.M. Captain Nicholl's citation testified to his 'gallantry, fortitude and resolution in bringing his ship to port in the face of relentless and determined enemy air attack at Malta and on passage.'

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Topical Press. Badge by permission of H.M. Stationery Office



WOMEN PLAYED A NOBLE PART IN CHINA'S RENAISSANCE

From college students to peasants, China's women entered whole-heartedly into the service of the nation in a thousand different spheres of usefulness. Here some are receiving and tending wounded soldiers just back from the fighting line; boy scouts also are assisting. In her 'New Life Movement' Madame Chiang Kai-shek, wife of the Generalissimo, sought to revive the spiritual virtues which had been the source of China's former greatness.

Photo, L.N.A.

CHINA IN THE RANKS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

This is the story of China during the year 1942, told by Colin McDonald, who for five years was Special Correspondent of 'The Times' in China. He was on the American gunboat 'Panay' when it was bombed and sunk by Japanese aircraft on December 12, 1937. He saw much of the fighting in North China, Shanghai, Nanking and Hankow, and escaped from Hongkong in a destroyer after the Japanese attack. Thereafter he spent some time in China's wartime capital, Chungking

When Japan declared war on Great Britain and the United States of America on December 7, 1941, the Chinese, confident of the strength of their new Allies, believed that the worst of their troubles were over. For more than four years they had struggled alone against their formidable opponent, hoping for the day when the Western Powers would come to their rescue. Now at long last that day had arrived, and the Chinese, ignorant of the extent of the disaster at Pearl Harbour, thought the war would soon be ended.

Instead of this the United Nations, as we have seen in earlier chapters, suffered a series of heavy reverses. The Chinese, although shaken like ourselves by these setbacks, never lost heart, and Chinese troops were on the move to succour Hongkong when the little British outpost fell on Christmas Day, 1941 (see p. 1989). The suddenness of the Japanese attack, as well as Chinese lack of transport for covering the vast distances involved, contributed to the failure of the Chinese to render effective assistance to the beleaguered Colony.

Another factor which prevented the strong Chinese forces stationed north of Canton from exerting any influence on the fate of Hongkong was the offensive launched by the Japanese farther north against the city of Changsha on December 23. For the third time the Japanese, advancing from their base at Yochow south of Hankow, reached the outskirts of Changsha; and for the third time, after heavy fighting in which they suffered severe casualties, they were forced to retreat—in the middle of January 1942. Whether or not the Japanese intended to hold Changsha, the Chinese were able to claim an important strategic success which did much to hearten their own people in the first black months of the year. (See illus., p. 1958.)

Meanwhile, the Japanese were steadily advancing down through Malaya and penetrating into Southern Burma. The situation became so serious that General Chiang Kai-shek, who had been appointed Supreme Commander of the United Nations' forces in the China, Siam and French Indo-China zone on January 3, flew to Burma in the middle of January to confer with General Wavell, who had taken over command of the United Nations' forces in Malaya, Burma, the Netherlands East Indies and India. Chinese troops played their part (see Chapter 206) in the heroic but hopeless defence of Burma.

On March 19 Lieut.-General Stilwell, of the U.S. Army, who had been Military Attaché in Peking for some years, was appointed Commander of the Chinese Fifth and Sixth Armies in Burma. On April 12 General Chiang Kai-shek again flew to Burma to confer with General Stilwell and General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander. The loss of Rangoon on March 9 was followed by the fall of Lashio, terminus of the Burma Road, on April 24. The Japanese swept on to the Salween River, but all their attempts to cross this wild torrent failed and they made no further serious attempt during the rest of the year to advance into China from this direction. (See map in p. 2051.)

After the American raid on Tokyo on April 18 (see pp. 2125-26) the Japanese may have been baffled for a time by President Roosevelt's bland assertion that the planes had come from "Shang-ri-la." But they soon learned where they had landed—in China. Accordingly, on May 21 Japanese forces started a large-scale offensive in the Chinese maritime province of Chekiang to destroy the "bomb-Tokyo bases." By May 31, in spite of bitter Chinese resistance, they had occupied Kinhwa, the capital of the province, and by the third week in June had seized all the important airfields in this part of China.

Early in July, however, the Japanese, under constant pressure from the Chinese, began to withdraw their forces. In the meantime another Japanese force had landed on the coast of the adjoining province of Fukien with the intention of linking up with the troops in Chekiang. This expedition was badly timed, for, the pressure on Chekiang having been



PRESIDENT OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Lin Sen (seen above in his garden at Chungking) joined the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in 1924, and was elected President of the National Government of China eight years later. His long term of office was ended by his death on August 1, 1943. Chiang Kai-shek then assumed the duties of Acting President, and was elected President on September 13.

Photo, Planet News





CHINA'S LINK WITH BURMA AND INDIA

The Yunnan-Burma railway followed the route of the famous highway from Lashio to Kunming, and when completed would connect with other important railways traversing parts of China with rich resources (see map, where Japanese-occupied territories are shown shaded). At the end of 1941 about one-third of the work on the Chinese section had been done; the Burma portion was intended to be built with British funds. Top, cutting a shelf for the railway along the Nam Ting river; lower photograph shows another section nearly completed.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

relaxed, the Chinese were able to detach troops for the defence of Fukien and the Japanese were forced to re-embark. Fighting continued in Chekiang through August, and by the end of the month the Chinese were able to claim that they had recovered all the important places, with the exception of Kinhwa, which the Japanese had captured in the earlier part of the campaign. (See map in this page.)

During the rest of the year there were no further major military operations on Chinese territory, though there was a certain amount of sporadic fighting in the province of Shantung, in the Yangtze Valley, and along the Canton–Hankow Railway. The guerillas continued to harass the Japanese in all the occupied areas, and while the cumulative effect of their activities was of little military importance, it continued to prevent the invader from exploiting his conquests in full. Wherever required the Chinese again resorted to the "scorched earth" policy, which they applied in places with the same ruthless thoroughness as the Russians had shown.

The chief feature of the year, however, was not the resilience of the Chinese in the military campaigns, but the activities of the American Air Force. In July, 1942, the volunteer airmen who had achieved fame as the "Flying Tigers" in Burma as well as China (see illus., p. 2048)—under General Claire Chennault—were reorganized as the U.S. Army Air Force in China. Henceforth they intensified their raids on Japanese bases, shipping and supply lines as far afield as Hongkong, French Indo-China and Siam. As a result the Japanese soon found that they no longer had undisputed command of the skies over China.

With her attack on Great Britain and the United States Japan had been at last able to stop up the remaining holes in the blockade of the China coast.

China Closely Blockaded

After the fall of Rangoon she was also able to close the Burma Road. Apart from a few almost impassable trails through the wild mountains in the extreme north of the Shan States, China's only land link was the route through Central Asia from Russia. When the Germans attacked Russia in June 1941 the Soviet had been forced to suspend further supplies. As a consequence, with the initial Japanese successes in the Pacific, China found herself subjected in effect to a long-range siege. Confronted with these conditions, the Chinese National Aviation Corporation, a joint Sino-American concern which,



in the face of every danger and difficulty, had operated the civil air lines all through the fighting in China, promptly started new services to India in order to keep China in touch with the outside world. These services were soon supplemented by the arrival of United States Army Air Force transport planes, with the promise of many more to come as the American output expanded to meet the urgent needs of the Allies in all theatres of war.

The writer of this Chapter, who witnessed many of the events described, can testify that the air link between China and India, maintained under these difficult conditions, could be ranked with the most hazardous journeys in the world. The planes flew over a largely unmapped stretch of the Himalayas; they passed within 70 miles of the chief Japanese air base in Burma; they went to 15,000 feet without oxygen, 20,000 if chased by the enemy; and often had to cope with monsoon weather on arrival in India. Although the amount of war material which could be brought into China in this way was not large, the moral effect of keeping open even this tenuous link with the outside world was of immense importance to the Chinese.

Hazardous Air Route



LEASE-LEND FACILITIES EXTENDED TO CHINA

On June 2, 1942, China was brought into the master Lease-Lend Agreement with the United States of America and became entitled to the benefits of this measure in the same manner as Great Britain. Dr. T. V. Soong, China's Foreign Minister (left), and the American Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, are signing the necessary documents at the State Department in Washington.

Photo, Keystone

With the loss of her land routes China was thrown back on her own economic resources, and the Government in Chungking redoubled its efforts to develop the industries which had been moved into the interior after the invasion of the coastal areas. Among the fields of enterprise which received special attention were the mineral wealth of Yunnan, the promising oil deposits of Kansu, and the production of vegetable fuels in Szechwan to augment the dwindling supplies of imported petrol. The "hit-and-run" industries in parts of the country subject to enemy forays were also developed to the full extent in the effort to make China self-supporting.



CHUNGKING'S WELCOME TO BRITISH PARLIAMENTARY MISSION

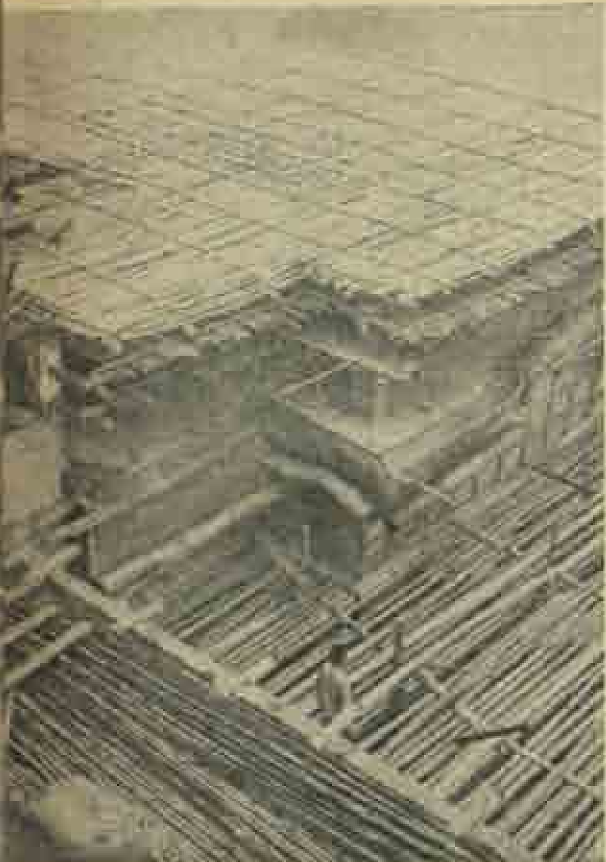
At the invitation of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, a British Mission visited Chungking, arriving on November 10, 1942, and leaving for India on December 10. It consisted of Lord Ailwyn and Lord Teviot (House of Lords), with Captain Scrymgeour Wedderburn, M.P., and Mr. Jack Lawson, M.P., representing the House of Commons. Cheering crowds lined the streets of Chungking as the visitors' car passed along.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Increasing attention was also given to the serious problem of inflation. The financial authorities in Chungking, foreign as well as Chinese, recognized that it was impossible under the conditions in which China found herself after five years of war to prevent inflation, and devoted their efforts to slowing up the process, one of the chief remedies being the collection of taxes in kind. China is largely an agricultural country, over 90 per cent of the people tilling the land, and the harvests for 1942 again proved bountiful for the fifth year in succession.

Check on Inflation

Besides coping with the problems of war, the Chinese devoted more and more attention to the problems of peace. During 1942 the word "reconstruction" became just as familiar in Chungking as it did in London. In addition to rebuilding and opening up large parts of bomb-scarred Chungking the Government drafted long-term plans for





BOMB-RAVAGED CHUNGKING

China's wartime capital is built on a high, rocky promontory at the junction of the Yangtze and Kia-ling rivers (below). Top, left, how buildings were protected by a bamboo 'detonator' to explode aerial bombs before they penetrated the structure. Right, one of the streets damaged by bombs and the fires which inevitably followed. *Photo, Planet News*







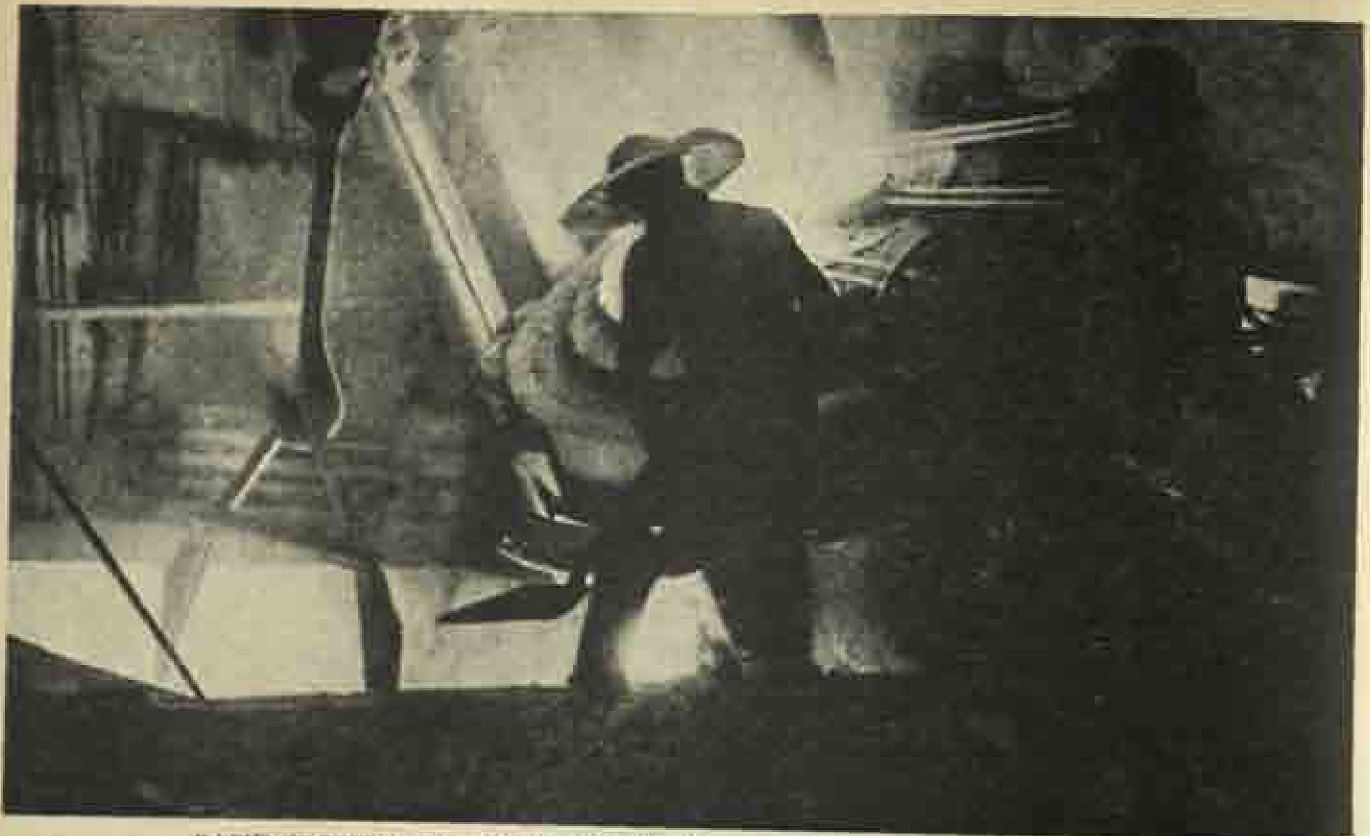


CHINA WAS FIRST VICTIM

In the years that followed Japan's attack in July 1937, China had to face savage bombing of her cities, and gradually built up an efficient A.R.P. system, with warnings, evacuation, shelters and relief. In Chungking itself there was dug-out accommodation for 500,000 people, who were admitted by domicile permits; at the other extreme were rough refuges like (3), scooped out of the soft earth on the banks of the Yellow River. In winter there was freedom from raids, but from May onwards they were of almost daily occurrence. Thousands of families moved their possessions each day to the country, and back again; (4) is such an exodus from Changsha. (1) Refugee family with their chattels; (2) In Chungking after a raid; a coolie and an army officer help a wounded peasant woman.

Photos, Chinese Official; L.N.A.; Keystone





RAPID GROWTH OF CHINESE INDUSTRY

In 1938 Chinese Industrial Cooperatives were instituted, societies with the object of assisting military and economic resistance to aggression. Goods ranging from textiles to chemicals, foodstuffs, furniture, agricultural implements and weapons were made—heavy industries well away from the battle zone, but some of the others much nearer—even in the fighting areas and behind the enemy lines. Above, a steel mill in West China: pouring molten steel.

Photo, Pictorial Press

developing the resources of the country. Special attention was given to hydro-electric power schemes for supplying new industries with power. Despite the difficulties of the long-range siege the Government did what it could to develop transport by road, rail and water.

Progress in Education

Progress was also made in the field of education, in spite of the lack of text-books, apparatus, and sometimes of adequate food for the thousands of students who followed the migration of the universities into the interior when the Japanese captured all the great cities of the coast, where most of the colleges had been situated. During the year the Minister of Education announced an extension of the universal education scheme designed to give graduated lessons, over a period of years, to every age group in the country from six to 60.

These measures gave directive force to the social changes brought about by five years of warfare. The chief of these could be summarized as follows: the breaking down of provincial barriers through millions of refugees streaming into the interior; the spread of *p'u tung hua*, or the plain speech of the North, as the national language; and the transfer of loyalty from the family unit to the State in the hour of national danger. Another notable change was the increasing part played by the women of China, inspired by the example of the three famous Soong sisters, in all spheres of life.

An important part in such social changes was played during the year by the New Life Movement, a sort of moral crusade led by Madame Chiang Kai-shek for the regeneration of the



BRITISH AND AMERICAN GUNBOATS FOR CHINA

In February Britain transferred the gunboats 'Falcon,' 'Gannet' and 'Sandpiper' to the Chinese Government; early next month the U.S.A. presented the 'Tutuila.' Here Admiral Chen Shao-Kwan is accepting the vessels (handed over on March 17, 1942) from the U.S. Naval Attaché, Lieut.-Col. J. M. McHugh (left), and the British Military Attaché, Brigadier G. E. Grimsdale (right).

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

nation by introducing austerity of mind, habit and action in every walk of life.

The year also saw the spread of the Industrial Cooperative Movement ("Indusco"), started after the outbreak of hostilities to develop local industries in every town, village and hamlet in the interior on cooperative lines to offset the loss of manufactures in the occupied areas and the drying up of imports from other countries.

Story of 'Indusco'

The effects of the New Life Movement were to be seen in the capital, where the note of austerity found expression in the closing of all cabarets, the shutting down of many of the teashops, the almost total ban on the serving of wine in restaurants and the banning of dancing in public and every form of luxury or self-indulgence—alike for the purpose of encouraging thrift in the interests of the national war effort and fostering the spirit of self-sacrifice which had enabled the Chinese to come through all the perils, heartbreaks and losses of the last five years.

In sharp contrast with such efforts were the corruption, disillusionment and bickering in the puppet regimes set up by the Japanese in the occupied regions. Japan's entry into the world war made little or no difference in these areas. The client state of Manchukuo went through the form of declaring war on the United Nations; but Wang Ching-wei's puppet government in Nanking, although entirely subservient to Japanese orders, for some reason or other took no such step for the time being. As a result, for more than a year, Occupied China remained nominally neutral in the midst of the general conflict in the Pacific.

Nevertheless, the citizens of the United Nations living in Occupied China were treated more or less as enemy subjects. The diplomats and their staffs were confined to their compounds. "Suspects" in the non-official walks of life were put in prison, while the remainder were kept under police supervision. In May an exchange of American officials and citizens for Japanese was carried out, and in August all British officials and a number of unofficial British subjects, about 1,300 in all, were repatriated from Japan and Occupied China in exchange for Japanese from Britain, the Dominions and India. Several thousand British



CHINA MOVES HER UNIVERSITIES TO SAFETY

Many of the universities and technical colleges were transferred to regions free of the Japanese, the majority to Szechwan. Despite all drawbacks the number of educational establishments grew steadily. Below, girl students of Linkiang College, transferred from Shanghai to Chungking, prepare the new playing fields. Top, new university buildings in West China nearly completed.

Photos, British Official : Crown Copyright



civilians remained in Japanese hands in Occupied China.

Among the immediate results of Chungking's formal declaration of war on the Axis Powers was a quickening of interest among all classes in China in events in the rest of the world. Prior to December 7, 1941, the term A B C D had exemplified the Pacific front to the masses — America, Britain, China and the Dutch East Indies. The presence of British and American Military Missions in Chungking and the frequent references by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt to China gave



PREPARATION FOR CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

In 1940 a three-year programme of local self-government was launched as a preparation for the realization of political democracy when China should be freed from the invader. By 1942 all counties of Free China were to have representative assemblies. Girls of the Political Affairs Commission went into the villages to expound the new system to the peasants and encourage resistance to the aggressor.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

the people a new sense of identity with the other United Nations in the common fight for freedom. The Chinese therefore automatically took their place in the Pacific Council which was later set up to meet in Washington and London.

As early as January 1, 1942, a declaration of the United Nations was signed in Washington by Great Britain, the United States, China and 23 other nations, undertaking to use their combined resources to defeat the Axis Powers and not to make a separate peace. (See page 2143.) On June 2 a "master" Lend and Lease agreement with China was signed at Washington, and at the end of the year the American currency stabilization agreement with China was extended for another six months. On March 11 a Chinese Military Mission arrived in Washington, later visiting Great Britain, the battlefields in North Africa, and India on its way back to China.

In addition to assisting the Chinese in the currency war with Japan by supporting the Chinese Stabilization Fund, Britain and the United States on February 2, 1942, announced the granting of credits to China of £50,000,000 and £125,000,000 respectively. The larger credit was granted by America because it was recognized that with Britain engaged on so many other fronts the Pacific must be Washington's primary concern rather than London's for the purposes of the war until, with the defeat of Hitler, the full crushing weight of the United Nations could be turned on Japan. The same principle was recognized in respect of aircraft for use in China and the equipping of the Chinese armies.

Generalissimo at New Delhi

China's closer relations with India culminated in the fortnight's visit of General Chiang Kai-shek and his wife to New Delhi, on February 9 (see illus., p. 2222). They were accompanied by Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, the popular British Ambassador to China, who later went to Moscow as our Ambassador to the U.S.S.R. On March 11 it was announced that China and India were to exchange diplomatic representatives, and this exchange duly followed. The new British Ambassador to China, Sir Horace Seymour, arrived at Chungking by air on February 26. During the year a number of important personages visited the Chinese war capital, including Mr. Wendell Willkie, who flew to China from Moscow by way of Chinese Turkestan at the end of September.

China also made a number of important new contacts with other countries in the free world. On March 20 she announced a treaty with Iraq; on March 20 an exchange of Ministers with Egypt; on March 31 a treaty of amity with Turkey; on June 25 the establishing of diplomatic relations with Persia; on October 28 a treaty with Argentina; and on December 4 the raising of the Chinese and Netherlands Legations to the status of Embassies. The most important diplomatic success was the accrediting of a representative

YOUNG CITIZENS OF THE NEW CHINA

Below, left, to one of Madame Chiang Kai-shek's war orphanages local children bring gifts of scrap metal; the coppers they get in return are handed over for the benefit of the orphans. Right, a war orphan explains the wall posters, which show traitors signalling to the enemy (top), and being marched away to their just fate under armed escort. More than 50 orphanages were maintained by the Refugee Children's Association, founded by the wife of the Generalissimo.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





to the Vatican, from which the Japanese had done their best to estrange China after the exchange of representatives between Tokyo and the Holy See in March.

British goodwill towards the Chinese was exemplified by the sending of a Parliamentary Mission to China. The Mission, which consisted of Lord Ailwyn, Lord Teviot, Captain H. J. Scrymgeour Wedderburn, M.P., and Mr. J. J. Lawson, M.P., arrived at Chungking in November. Besides receiving a warm welcome from General Chiang Kai-shek, the members of the Government and all classes of the people, the Mission was accorded the unprecedented honour of being the first foreigners to attend a session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, the official Party which virtually controls the State. After a month in China, in the course of which they visited the Yellow River front, the members of the Mission left for home by way of Turkey, full of praise for the Chinese war effort.

Other tokens of goodwill included the handing over to the Chinese on March 17 of the British river gunboats "Falcon," "Gannet" and "Sandpiper." Following the example of the British in giving their ex-American destroyers the names of towns in both countries, the Chinese gave their new warships the names of towns in China beginning with the character or ideograph for England. Thus the "Falcon" became Yingteh, or English Virtue, the "Gannet" Yingshan or English Mountain, and the "Sandpiper" Yingho or English Hero. The American gunboat "Tutuila," which was handed over the same day, became Meiyuan or American Origin, after the T'ang Dynasty town of the same name in the province of Shensi.

Allies Hand Over Gunboats

By far the biggest step in bringing about closer relations between China and her allies was the announcement on October 9 that the British and American Governments had decided to relinquish all extra-territorial rights in China. The announcement added that the decision would apply immediately to the free parts of China, and would apply to the whole of liberated and reconstituted China after the war. With one stroke of the pen Great Britain and the United States swept away the whole complex system of legal immunities, trading privileges, foreign areas and local defence forces enjoyed by extra-territorial foreigners in China. After a hundred years the Chinese thus became masters in their own house at last, free to rebuild it in their own way, with such foreign assistance only as they might choose to seek.



WOMEN OF CHINA'S FRONT LINE

Wherever there was fighting the Chinese women rallied to the war emergency services, evacuating women and children from villages in the battle area, organizing the transport and after-care of wounded, sewing and washing for front-line troops, and arranging entertainment and recreation. Top, a member of the American Baptist Surgical Unit tends a soldier's wounds. Below, a front-line girl of the New Life Movement. *Photos, "Daily Mirror"*



China thus entered at once a new era in which no vestige or suggestion of inequality remained. Although she began the year 1942 badly as a result of the early reverses of the Allies in the Pacific, she finished it with the high hopes of the United Nations engendered by the brilliant victories in North Africa. The steadfast leadership of General Chiang Kai-shek, the tenacity of her own people and the long-term plans of her Allies gave her new courage to endure the trials still to be surmounted. In facing these trials she had the further inspiration of knowing that, in place of the long, dreary war of attrition she had been facing when she fought alone, she could now look forward to the crushing defeat of her enemies when the steadily expanding power of the United Nations should finally overwhelm the Japanese.

JAPAN IN 1942: TWELVE MONTHS OF TOTAL WAR

Events inside Japan during the year that followed the attack on British and American possessions, are here described by Peter Hume. The author, who is a member of the council of the Royal Central Asian Society, was a war correspondent with the Japanese forces in North China, 1937–38. Later he became Assistant News Director in Singapore and Java of the Malay Broadcasting Corporation

THE first three days of each New Year are the occasion for Japan's main annual festival. At the opening of 1942, for the first time for three years, the Japanese people felt they really had something to celebrate. The festivities were of a rationed, sparse, wartime character, but at last, after more than four years of war, the headlines in the papers told of victories at least comparable with those which had enlivened the beginning of 1938 and 1939.

Since those first two years of victory in China the Japanese had been bound under a regime of increasing stringency, which sought to conduct one war while secretly preparing for another. Long ago imported Western luxuries had disappeared, and all types of superfluous consumer goods had gone to feed the war machine. And since the sweeping advances of 1937 and 1938 in North and Central China there had been nothing to show for these sacrifices—sacrifices which were reflected also in high taxation, long hours of work under slave conditions, continual driving of the undernourished workers.

By 1942 the climax had come. The three-month-old Government of General Tojo had already rewarded the workers with one of the most brilliantly planned and executed combined operations in the history of warfare. Hongkong and Manila had been captured; two great British capital ships had been sunk; the American Pacific Fleet (according to the highly circumstantial stories released by the "Board of Information") had been annihilated. Thailand had fallen like a ripe plum into Japanese hands; Japanese troops were advancing, seemingly without check, down the Malayan peninsula to Singapore, for many years the major beam in the eye of Nippon's expansionists.

To the Japanese all these things were reasons for celebration, not only because they were unexpected, and because the people realized that they had got off to an astonishingly good start—but because the "Divine mission" of Japan had been advanced one step nearer its completion. Japan, a senior officer of the Army said in all seriousness, was self-evidently superior to other nations because her dynasty was descended from a goddess—from the female principle of natural generation and growth. Other countries in their religions traced their genesis only to a male God, and the male principle was one of manual and artificial construction. Therefore the Japanese could give new life to the world, while the Western nations could only prop up artificially the falling structure of a degenerate civilization.



GENERAL HIDEKI TOJO AND HIS CABINET

After the third Cabinet of Prince Konoye resigned, on October 16, 1941, General Tojo formed a Government in which, besides the Premiership, he took over the Ministry for Home Affairs and retained the War Ministry. Thus the army was now in complete control of the country. Front row, left to right: Hiroya Ino (Agriculture); Kunihiko Hashida (Education); General Tojo; Teiichi Suzuki (without portfolio). Back row, left to right: Ken Terashima (Transport); Shigenori Togo (Foreign Affairs); Michiyo Iwamura (Justice); Nobosuke Kishi (Commerce); Okinori Kaya (Finance); Chikahiko Koizumi (Welfare); Yoshiaki Hatta (Railways); Shigetaro Shimada (Navy); Michio Yuzawa (Home Affairs).

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

To observers in the western world, long since purged of primitive superstitions and accustomed to accord to religion its proper and logical place in modern life, it seemed incredible that "educated" Japanese should actually believe in these ideas of Imperial descent from the Sun goddess and of a heaven-inspired mission to conquer the eastern—if not indeed the entire—world. Still more incredible did it appear that statesmen and politicians, or commanders in the fighting services, should be motivated in their plans by such archaic beliefs. But the fact was inescapable.

Emperor's Divine Ancestry

The thesis had been enunciated clearly enough by the former Japanese Prime Minister, Hiranuma, a year earlier, on the occasion of the 2,601st anniversary of the founding of the Empire (February 11, 1941). He spoke to 3,000 primary school teachers and ward officials in Hibiya Hall, Tokyo, that evening. After a reference to the grandson of the Sun goddess, sent down by Heaven with a message that "their posterity should reign over and govern Japan for ages eternal," Hiranuma continued:

"It was on this happy day 2,601 years ago that our first Emperor, Jimmu, ascended the



CHINESE FORCED TO WORK FOR THE ENEMY

Except for a relatively small number of Chinese malcontents the Japanese invaders met with resistance and opposition everywhere, and "collaboration" was out of the question. More than three-quarters of a million guerillas were harassing them, and half a million Chinese regular troops operated behind the Japanese lines. Above, captured Chinese working in the fields under a Japanese guard.

Photo, Paul Popper

throne. Dynasties in foreign countries were created by men, but Japan has a Sacred Throne inherited from the Imperial Ancestors. Japanese Imperial Rule, therefore, is an extension of Heaven. Dynasties created by men may collapse, but the Heaven-created throne is beyond men's power."

It was Jimmu who had issued the Rescript which embodied the "Hakko Ichiu" principle: "Therefore the Capital may be extended so as to embrace all the six cardinal points, and the eight cords may be covered so as to form a roof." The six cardinal points signified the world, and the roof which was to be formed by covering the eight cords typified Japanese Imperial rule.*

Lest the reader should imagine that Hakko Ichiu was merely picturesque imagery and nothing more, we may point out that in 1941 no less a person than Matsuoka, Foreign Minister, had identified it with the Japanese programme, saying it meant "universal brotherhood," in which the other nations of the world would have each its own proper place. He left no doubt that Japan would be the leader in this paradise. In Europe, the Hitler regime has made use of a similar *mystique*—the Aryan heritage—but without any such solid background of tradition as has influenced Japan.

Japanese militarists were products of, and heirs to, a system which emerged from feudal priestly teachings less than a hundred years ago and had since then, in the words of one authority, "aimed first of all to develop and cultivate endurance and other characteristics useful for conquest and progress. Japanese education has always been conducted with a view to training children for collective action."†

The keystone of this training since the emergence of the modern State system as a consequence of the Meiji Restoration in 1868 was the person of the Emperor. The theory of the divinity of the occupant of the throne persists in Japan as undiluted as it does among the primitive tribes of Central Africa, and the apparatus of compulsory State education is the means of its propagation. This unique contradiction between primitive belief and the modern machinery of Government is the basis of the apparent contradictions in the Japanese character.

* * * * *

Thus it was that on the New Year Festival of 1942 the Japanese were joyful. General Tojo and the members of his Government could celebrate. They had been right. Through the first months of 1942 this atmosphere

* "Tokyo Record," Otto D. Tolischus. London (Hamish Hamilton, 1943).

† "Eyes on Japan," Yakhontoff

JAPANESE NOTES FOR MALAYA AND AUSTRALIA

Left, five-dollar notes printed by the Japanese and put into circulation in Malaya after its fall. Right, One-pound notes seized by the Allied military authorities, together with others for ten shillings, one shilling and "half-shilling." Obviously they were intended for circulation in Australia or New Zealand after a Japanese invasion.

Photos, British Official







FANATICAL RELIGIOUS FERVOUR OF JAPANESE SOLDIERY

Massed on the border of French Indo-China and Burma, ready for the invasion, Japanese troops present arms to the rising sun—which to them typified the goddess from whom their line of emperors was descended. The spirits of soldiers killed in war were deified, and the Emperor himself took part in the elaborate ceremony at Tokyo at which they were enrolled among the patron-gods of Japan. *Photo, Keystone*

persisted and gained strength. There was no need for propaganda (though by custom it was amply provided) to exaggerate the solid gains of the Japanese forces. Singapore fell, and that very afternoon listeners to Tokyo radio's home service could hear a choir of schoolchildren singing a prepared and rehearsed anthem of celebration. Java was occupied as culmination of a campaign embracing the scattered and inevitably under-defended islands of the Netherlands East Indies. Japanese forces swept through Burma, captured Rangoon and cut the last lifeline of China, the oldest enemy. The Philippines were subjugated.

Intoxicated With Success

So much did these successes affect the Japanese that they seemed in the first month of 1942 in danger of falling into the opposite error of complacency. In consequence there were repeated warnings by Tojo and lesser officials, especially publicized at the moments of most outstanding success. For instance, after the fall of Singapore General Terauchi, who as "Commander-in-Chief South Operations" was militarily responsible for the campaign, specifically told Japanese newspaper correspondents that the war was only just beginning and that there was hard fighting ahead.

Such warnings were largely nullified by the excesses of the Japanese propaganda machine, which was not content with the real victories but continued to minimize (absurdly to anyone but a Japanese) the cost at which these were achieved. Thus it was officially announced on March 2 1942, that the Malayan campaign had cost Japan only eight aircraft. Shipping losses, which by the time Singapore fell had in fact mounted to 182 vessels sunk or damaged, were hardly mentioned; while great play was made with the air and sea losses of the United Nations. Though these losses were undoubtedly serious, later events were to prove them far from "annihilating" in character, as represented to the Japanese public.

On the crest of the wave of military success in the Philippines, the Netherlands East Indies and Burma, Tojo took the unusual step of announcing a General Election to the Japanese Diet. This remarkable institution had been in existence since 1890, the year following the promulgation of the Ito constitution, which was based on the archaic Prussian model of that day. The significance of the Diet in Japanese national affairs varied with the changing trends of policy, but it never had a constitutional responsibility or power resembling that of a democratic Parliament. The Cabinet was responsible to the Emperor and not to the Diet, and while the Diet had the constitutional right to deliberate on projected laws it had no power either to make or cancel them.

A Government which found any of its measures without the support of a majority in the Diet could continue in office. The Constitution in any case provided for only one three-month session of the Diet each year. Except during this period the Government had absolute powers, limited only by its responsibility to the Emperor. At need the Emperor's authority could be invoked. An instance cited by O. D. Tolischus in his book mentioned earlier was the adherence of Japan to the Axis alliance. Two Cabinets and 70 Cabinet sessions had turned down the alliance, but to settle controversy once and for all Matsuoka had extracted from the Emperor an Imperial Rescript sanctioning it, which immediately put it beyond challenge within Japan.

Cabinet and Constitution

This, then, was the sort of "representative assembly" to which Tojo, in April 1942, called elections. It was not necessary for him to do so, but the time was ripe for a demonstration of Japanese solidarity behind his daringly aggressive policy. The pro-Fascist totalitarian elements of the Japanese political machine had succeeded as long ago as 1940 in abolishing the weak traditional political parties. In their place had been erected the aptly named "Imperial Rule Assistance Association," the creature of successive militarist cabinets and bolstered especially by Army support.

It was this Association which, in the elections of April 1942, alone had the privilege of nominating candidates. Any opposition became the opposition of individuals to the will of the Emperor—the will expressed by a Government which had proved, and was continuing day by day to prove, its success in carrying out the Divine Imperial mission. Apart from this advantage the recommended candidates benefited from the support of the whole

machinery of official propaganda. Consequently the bulk of them were elected—by a franchise which had less than 20 years previously been extended to men of over 25. Before then hardly more than 1 per cent of the population had had a vote, owing to stringent property qualifications. By this totalitarian device Tojo and his associates, who had themselves presumably anticipated a long defensive war to follow the initial series of quick victories, provided that even in this puppet organ of Government they would be ensured of "popular" support for four years to come.

The time of the election was well chosen; just before the Japanese went to the polls, in fact, a cloud had darkened the Tokyo skies. On April 18 American Mitchell bombers appeared over the capital and other principal cities of Japan. The raid was on a tiny scale by European standards, and it is doubtful whether a great deal of military importance was achieved. Nevertheless, the first shock of counter-attack had been administered to Japanese morale at home—only two days after Tokyo radio had echoed Goering's boast of 1939, saying it was "absolutely impossible for enemy bombers to get within 500 miles of Tokyo."

American Bombs on Tokyo

An eye-witness account of the raid* was given by Miss Georgia Newbury, a native of Oregon, who after 12 years of missionary work in Japan had turned newspaper-woman. She watched the raid from a window of the Japan Times and Advertiser office.

"The raid occurred at noon," she said. "Two hours before, the Japs posted signals and air raid wardens began feverish activity. Members of our staff, on duty on the air raid squad, got into their uniforms. Air raid sirens wailed and radio warnings were broadcast. It was a tremendous shock to the Japanese. Before I left the window I saw one of the raiders swoop so low that I could see the face of one of the crew. I knew it was an American plane and that he was one of our own. The story was run on the front pages of the newspapers promptly, but they gave it a single-column heading, saying the first foreign planes in history had flown over Japan. These headings contrasted strongly with the Jap manner of handling the start of the war and the fall of Singapore. The former had huge headlines, but for Singapore the Japan News did not have type big enough for the purpose, and had 'Singapore Falls' cut in wood blocks for nearly a week before the event.

"The Japanese are abundantly supplied with the vital needs of war, but they have a transportation problem to get these supplies home from conquered lands," continued Miss Newbury. "They have an enormous programme of building wood and concrete ships of about 1,000 tons. They are mobilizing the women in every field. Every little patch of ground, even between the buildings in Tokyo, is under cultivation. Every woman belongs to a patriotic organization, and they are all teaching how to use weeds, leaves and bark in their diet. Food is scarce and hard to get, but they have enormous supplies of canned goods in storage."

*"The Star," London, January 20, 1942.

The effect of the American raid was chiefly to impress upon Japanese leaders the necessity of avoiding a repetition. A wholesale purge was conducted of the senior personnel of home air defence headquarters, whose organization had failed to destroy by fighter interception or anti-aircraft fire a single raiding aircraft, and cold-blooded murder was resorted to as a reprisal against American air crews who had been forced to land in occupied China. In addition, a full-scale campaign, employing two Army corps, was initiated in the coastal area of China where the American bombers had been scheduled to land. Massacres and atrocities on a scale unusual even in the unpleasant history of Japanese operations in China were instituted against the peasants who had welcomed the American fliers. In many villages every man, woman and child was slaughtered.

Effect of the Raid

These events, together with a momentary exhibition of hysteria on the part of the previously over-confident radio, were the only indications of the effects of the raid. Stories told by





WHEN AMERICAN BOMBERS RAIDED TOKYO, APRIL 18, 1942

From the Japanese newspaper "Yomiuri" of April 19, 1942, these photographs purport to show (left) one of the Mitchell bombers amidst anti-aircraft shell bursts; and (right) firemen at work on a blazing building after the raid. Led by Major-General James Doolittle, the squadron of Mitchell bombers took off from the U.S. aircraft carrier "Hornet" some 600 miles from Japan. (See p. 2236.)

Photos, Associated Press



JAPANESE TANKS UNDER MASS PRODUCTION

Japan applied rigid control of industrial production soon after the European war began. Wages were fixed in October 1939, with a maximum for male munition workers of £10 per month—though few received anything like as much. Working hours were increased in July 1941 from ten to twelve, six days per week. Prices for many commodities had been stabilized, but in two years there were nearly a million 'black market' prosecutions.

Photo, Associated Press

British and American subjects repatriated from Japan later in the summer tended to disagree about its value in shaking morale, though it would appear that it had a sobering effect on a victory-drunk populace and caused Japan's leaders seriously to consider the danger to the whole mystico-military structure of any repetition on a larger scale.

During the rest of the year the raid was not repeated, but in a sense its timing was symbolic for Japan of transition to a new phase of the war, a phase comparable to that which had followed the quick victories of 1937 and 1938 in China. Already on April 12 the Government had taken steps to reduce the sales of consumer goods. This further belt-tightening was justified by the Minister of Commerce on the grounds that shortage of shipping would preclude the use of products from the occupied areas for some time. "Japan," he said, to a private gathering, "must be prepared to face a long period of contriving and restriction."

New Phase of War

In spite of the fact that in the early days of May Japan suffered her first serious naval defeat, in the Coral Sea, this note of caution was not echoed in the speeches made by the Prime Minister and other members of the Government at the opening of the new Diet on May 27. Tojo, indeed, after claiming the Coral Sea encounter as a Japanese victory which had "wiped away the naval units put up for the defence of Australia," painted for the House a rosy picture of Japan's position on all her scattered fronts. Significantly enough, though, he thought it desirable to give specific reassurances about food supplies and anti-aircraft defences. Another point emphasized in his speech and in that of Tōgo (Foreign Minister) which followed it was the security of Japan's position *vis-à-vis* Soviet Russia. Even the simplest Japanese could appreciate the menace presented by Russian air-power in the Maritime Provinces of Siberia, and it was thus the Government's policy to speak soft words when the Russians were winning victories, resorting to threats when they were pushed back by the Germans.

On this occasion the menacing tone was most in evidence, Togo asserting that attempts to alienate the two countries would not succeed so long as Russia "firmly maintains" an attitude of neutrality. Tojo complemented this attitude by reassuring the Japanese people that in the North "the security of Japan's defence is as solid as a rock." A different note had been struck earlier in the year during the course of the successful Russian winter offensive. Then Naotake Sato, appointed ambassador on March 5, had spoken only of the importance of "clarifying Japanese-Soviet relations." A fortnight later Japan had signed a protocol agreeing to a 20 per cent increase in the rents paid to Russia for fishing rights in Siberian waters.

Togo and Tojo on Russia

On the home front increasing financial stringency was indicated in July by the issue of a new 5,000,000,000



EXCHANGE OF ALLIED AND JAPANESE DIPLOMATS

British and American diplomats embarked in the Japanese liner 'Asama Maru' at Yokohama on June 17, 1942. After a week in Tokyo Bay at anchor, she left for Lourenço Marques, via Rio de Janeiro. At Lourenço Marques the British and Americans exchanged into the 'Gripsholm,' which had brought Japanese nationals, while the latter embarked in the Japanese liner. Above, the 'Gripsholm' at Rio de Janeiro.

Photo, Keystone

yen (roughly £300,000,000) war loan, adding to the astronomical national debt, announced in June by the Imperial Treasury as totalling 41,236,000,000 yen (£2,500,000,000). As much as possible of this new loan was forced on the Japanese agricultural and industrial workers, a third of whose always inadequate incomes was already being taken in direct taxation to finance the war. But since the average worker's income amounted to only half the minimum computed by Japanese experts as necessary to maintain a small household, there was little chance of large-scale small saving, and the bulk of the loan was, as in previous cases, taken up by the Bank of Japan. The Japanese worker, if he were a farmer or fisherman (as are some 40 per cent of the total population), continued to exist on such scraps of his produce as he could retain after payment of crippling taxes. If he were an industrial worker he lived on the few subsistence goods obtainable in bare shops or, more usually, on the low-grade food provided in communal messes at the factories—where a great part of the industrial population lived, ate and slept in a rigidly controlled routine.

All this time casualties at the front and the ever-growing demands of the armed forces were creating dangerous labour shortages on farms and in factories. In spite of favourable weather conditions the 1942 harvest fell more than 5 per cent short of the target set by the Government, largely owing to the fact that (in the words of a Japanese writer) "in all villages there are very few men of 21 to 30 years of age. Most of the farm work is done by women."*

Man-power Problems

It was not only among the people that the change in the character of the war which followed Japan's attainment of her initial objectives had a disintegrating effect. Although the Government could not have been unprepared for the weary period of attempted consolidation which followed the first spectacular phase, the transition gave the opportunity for latent differences to make themselves felt. The process culminated on September 1 in the resignation of the Foreign Minister, Shigenori Togo, last of Japan's ostensible "liberals" to hold a key post in the militarist Cabinet. On the same day was announced the formation of a "Greater East Asia Ministry," to control the exploitation of Japan's conquests from Manchuria to Java, a step which deprived the Foreign Office of most of its already reduced authority.

* "Kaizo": Namiji Nakazawa, November 1942.



JAPAN INSTITUTES ANTI-SPY WEEK

Concurrently with the passing of a State Secrets Defence Law at the beginning of May 1942, an anti-spy week was inaugurated. The public were warned that not only military matters but what the Home Ministry called 'state secrets' were involved. Here are some of the posters then exhibited: top, a typical hoarding; below, left—'Do not look at military affairs; do not listen to rumours; do not tell secrets'; right, 'Do not climb into the spy's hand.'

Photos, Keystone; Paul Popper

The quarrel was of long standing, the Foreign Office having in 1937 and 1939 opposed the establishment of similar bureaux for the exploitation of occupied China. Each time the protest had been unavailing against militarist pressure; on one occasion the Minister had resigned and on another the Foreign Office staff.

Now Tojo took over the Foreign Office until, 17 days later, he was able to find a suitably compliant underling. This was Masayuki Tani, a former secret agent of the militarists, who in that capacity is largely credited with the underground preparations for the invasion by Japan of French Indo-China. In the interim before his appointment the new Ministry had been well set on its course and the Foreign Office effectively shorn of jurisdiction over relations with any of Japan's subjugated neighbours. The Greater East Asia Ministry was in fact a Colonial Office, and its establishment signified public acknowledgement by the

Japanese that economic exploitation and direct control were to take the place of diplomatic relations throughout the nominally independent territories of "Manchukuo," puppet China, Indo-China and Siam, as well as in the other conquered countries to which independence had been loudly promised. At the same time the affairs of Japan's two earliest conquests, Korea and Formosa, were taken over by the Home Office.

The problem of consolidation which the new Ministry was to control was evidently becoming a matter of urgency as the Allies began to hit back at the outer defences of the sphere of exploitation. The Japanese summer offensive against the East China airfields from which Japan could be bombed had been largely a failure, and the Chinese had regained control of much of the critical area; the American reoccupation of Guadalcanal was proceeding, and in New Guinea the Allied counter-offensive was slowly pushing the Japanese back across the Owen Stanley range. On September 27 Tojo admitted that "British and American plans for a counter-offensive are beginning to take a more definite form. The real developments of the war will be seen in the future."



HIROHITO THE EMPEROR—TOJO THE DICTATOR

General Hideki Tojo, War Minister, took over the Premiership on October 17, 1941, and also the portfolio of the Home Ministry, thus concentrating in one hand the control of political, military and police affairs. Here (right) he is receiving orders from the Emperor Hirohito (on dais). Hirohito was born in 1901 and succeeded to the throne of Japan in 1926, the 124th emperor in the line of Jimmu Tenno.

Photo, Keystone

More encouraging to Japan for the moment was the situation in Africa (where Rommel still threatened Cairo from El Alamein) and in Russia, where by the end of September the Germans were fighting within Stalingrad. Reports became current that the fall of this city would be the signal for a Japanese attack on Siberia. These stories were given colour by the announcement on October 19 of new restrictions imposed along the Russo-Manchurian frontier "in the interests of national defence." Nevertheless, warnings of difficulties to come and to be overcome multiplied in the closing months of the year. On October 1 the President of Tokyo University was put up to tell the people in a radio speech that the war could not be disposed of as quickly and easily as Japan had at first thought. "It is most urgent for us to change our ideas entirely," he declared, "and not be at ease as we have been in the past." A possible clue to the need for this sort of warning was given by an article in the November number of a Japanese magazine (the Central Review), which admitted that "although there was a rapid increase in production in the first three months of 1942, the effort slacked as a result of victory on the Southern front." Another indication of growing internal trouble, which may have been brought about by the Government's failure realistically to convey to the workers the need for their continued sacrifices, was a wave of petty crime. In a fortnight in September Tokyo police rounded up more than 20,000 "bad element youths."

Perhaps with this in mind the report of Japanese casualties issued on December 7, anniversary of Japan's attack, was more revealing than previous ones had been. More than 60,000 Army casualties were admitted (excluding those suffered in China), as well as the loss of 40 warships (including a battleship and two aircraft carriers), 63 merchant ships and 950 aircraft. These figures by no means represented the true facts, but they came nearer to them and to telling the Japanese people something of the hard truth than had ever before been the case. As a slight offset a naval spokesman the same day claimed that new battleships and aircraft carriers "of unique construction" had been commissioned since the outbreak of war and were taking an active part in operations.

So Japan entered 1943 in a more sober frame of mind. A year earlier Tojo's New Year message had been:

"The fatal blows given to the British and American navies in the Pacific, as well as the capture of strategic enemy bases, are the signal for sweeping out British and American influence from East Asia. Japan and China are now fully cooperating in the establishment of a new order in East Asia."

At the year's end the tune was different. On December 27 Tojo said:

"Moves of the utmost strategic importance are lurking everywhere, giving the impression that the real war is starting now. . . . British and United States air forces are attempting almost daily raids [on occupied Burma]. . . . In the Solomons Japanese army forces are fighting the enemy under the most adverse conditions. The enemy in this sector possesses excellent air bases, and it is consequently difficult to land supplies of food and munitions. In China, the Japanese expeditionary forces are fighting . . . against about 3,000,000 men of the Chungking forces and about 600,000 Communist troops, striving to crush the enemy and maintain peace and order within the occupied areas. . . . In Manchukuo Japanese army forces are guarding our northern defences in face of an ever-changing international situation. Other units stationed in Japan are engaged day and night without relaxation in providing against air raids."

It was not a happy picture. Indeed, from the Solomons and New Guinea to the Ukraine and North Africa the United Nations were now on the offensive. Owing to the peculiarities of totalitarian propaganda and the inherent necessity of maintaining the doctrine of divine infallibility this could not be directly conveyed. Only by such indirect methods as Tojo's could the people be prepared for the further sacrifices and labours which their Government saw looming ahead in the defensive days of 1943.



Photo, Associated Press

LEADERS OF THE NEW CHINA WITH THEIR AMERICAN ALLY

On March 19 Chiang Kai-shek (left) appointed Lieut.-General Joseph Stilwell (right), former United States Military Attaché in Peking, to command the 5th and 6th Chinese Armies in Burma. Early in April the Generalissimo, accompanied by Madame Chiang Kai-shek (centre), visited Maymyo, Burma, to confer with General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander, the British Commander, and General Stilwell.



CHUNGKING THE INDOMITABLE

Here is China's wartime capital, the treaty port of Chungking, with the Yangtze river in the middle distance. Much raid damage is evident, for the city was frequently bombed after the first severe attack, in May 1939. A mass air assault on August 19–20, 1940, wiped out four-fifths of the down-town business quarter. For half the year Chungking is veiled from above by clouds, or cloaked in mist or fog, so that there is relative freedom from air attack then. Nothing stopped the city's activities for long, and through all the bombings daily newspapers appeared. Altogether there were 14 of them, and almost every newspaper office suffered serious bomb damage. (See also illus. pp. 2290–91.)

Photo, Associated Press



BACK TO WORK AFTER THE BOMBERS HAVE PASSED

In shelters formed in the caves beneath Chungking about half a million people could find refuge during the frequent Japanese air attacks that continued throughout the summer. There was room in the dug-outs for motor cars and lorries, and several of the city's newspapers were produced there. (See illus. p. [illegible].) In this photograph the people are streaming back to their daily round after a raid.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Chapter 232

JAPAN'S FAR-FLUNG OPERATIONS IN THE PACIFIC: FIRST SIX MONTHS

Like Chapter 231, this account has been contributed by Peter Hume, whose experience in the Far East (see page 2296) enables him to present a clear and balanced story of Japan's strategy and the pseudo-mystical background against which fantastic plans of domination were being worked out by her military rulers. It should be read with the previous Chapter, dealing with events inside Japan. (Consult also map between pp. 2038–39)

To most people in the Western world "Greater East Asia" and the "Co-prosperity Sphere" were meaningless propaganda phrases, but to those in countries under the heel of Japan they were hard and no longer attractive realities. To the Japanese themselves they stood for an important step towards the goal of "Hakko Ichiu," the sacred mission of gathering the corners of the earth under one roof—the roof of Japanese Imperial domination (see Chapter 231). It is by these standards that it is necessary to judge the Japanese after the invasion of Manchuria in 1931, and especially after Japan's attacks on Great Britain and the United States in 1941. In the words of the notorious Tanaka Memorial, prepared by Baron Giichi Tanaka, then Japanese Premier, in 1927:

"In the future if we want to control China, we must first crush the United States just as in the past we had to fight in the Russo-Japanese War. But in order to conquer China we must first conquer Manchuria and Mongolia. In order to conquer the world we must first conquer China. If we succeed in conquering China the rest of the Asiatic countries and the South Sea countries will fear us and surrender to us. Then the world will realize that Eastern Asia is ours and will not dare to violate our rights. This is the plan left to us by Emperor Meiji, the success of which is essential to our national existence."

It was probably the existence of such jingoistic fantasies at the basis of Japanese military policy that made it difficult for many Western observers to take the Japanese seriously, and led to that underestimation of the enemy which had such disastrous results in Malaya and elsewhere in the first months of 1942. Only belatedly was it realized that the Japanese militarists, however fantastic their motives, were nevertheless capable of the most precise strategic planning and the most effective tactical execution of the plans they devised. Undoubtedly they made gross mistakes, mistakes whose consequences were leading infallibly to final defeat; but in general their military progress towards the goal of world dominion (for which, it must always be remembered, they were prepared to wait a hundred years) had been orderly and logical. First Manchuria was seized, and six years allowed for its consolidation as an element in Japanese war economy. Meanwhile, Inner Mongolia and North China were politically infiltrated without the provocation of general hostilities, until the point was reached where it was felt that a general sweeping-out of Chinese control in the provinces north of the Yellow River was opportune.

Even then, after the manufacture of the Lukouchiao incident (see Chapter 200 for more details) which on July 7, 1937, opened the Sino-Japanese war, there was a general belief among countries friendly to China (and *a fortiori* among Japanese strategists) that strategically the aggression was soundly conceived. The first pattern of doubt among Western nations was laid when in the following month the Japanese attacked south of the Yellow River, at Shanghai. This faint doubt also was largely dispelled when the invading armies broke through from Shanghai to Nanking and advanced up the Yangtze to Hankow. It is on record that after the fall of Hankow representatives of "friendly powers" approached the Chinese military authorities with a query as to whether they considered further resistance possible. The fact that Japanese strategists, relying on an undeniable superiority in fire-power, armour and air support, failed to envisage the continued resiliance (and indeed revitalization) of China after the loss of her most developed territories and her vital lines of communication, was later paralleled by the errors of the German Wehrmacht in regard to Britain and Russia.



'CO-PROSPERITY SPHERE' AS JAPAN SAW IT

Officially the plan for Japanese domination over enormous areas of 'Greater East Asia' was made public in a Foreign Office statement issued at Tokyo in February 1941. The Japanese map here reproduced dates from the following June, but areas overrun by the enemy up to the end of May 1942 have been indicated in black.

Nevertheless, it was this cardinal error which upset the logical Tanaka programme. Tanaka had said that in order to conquer the world Japan must first conquer China, and, in spite of the reservations he had made with regard to the United States, he had not envisaged a campaign against the Western powers while China remained as a potent fighting force. Instead of the planned progress from conquest to consolidation, and then to further conquest with the aid of the resources of the territory first subjugated, Japan in 1941 found herself faced with a China still fighting and growing ever



PEARL HARBOUR BLOW AS SEEN FROM ENEMY BOMBERS

Striking Japanese photographs of the surprise aerial attack on Pearl Harbour, December 7, 1941: at the top the first bombs are falling on the American battleships and cruisers—stationary, close together and near the shore, a 'sitting target.' Below, half an hour later: one battleship sunk (extreme left); others are burning fiercely. (Compare with the U.S. Official and other photographs in pp. 1971, 1690, 1981 and 1982.)

Photos, "New York Times" Photos



stronger by the aid of Britain and the United States, while at the same time those countries were applying economic sanctions of increasing stringency to Japan's own war effort.

The logical solution for the Japanese strategists, even though it had in it some element of desperation, was a swift attack on those nations which, for moral reasons incomprehensible to Japan's mystical doctrine, were ranging themselves by the side of her present enemy. It was not a sudden decision, and preparations to implement it had been aided by the fact that such an attack had long been part of Japan's strategic plan. The only revision necessary was a readjustment of the time-table so as to make the expulsion of Britain and the United States from East Asia precede—and bring about—the defeat of China.

Events in Europe favoured the furthering of Japan's strategic aims. In particular, the collapse of France in June 1940 opened the door to Indo-China, which provided an ideal base for attack on the Philippines and Borneo, and (through Siam) on Malaya and Burma—as well as the air-sea key to the South China Seas. In fact, Indo-China furnished the airfields whence the "Prince of Wales" and "Repulse" were attacked on December 10, 1941, and whence the main air assault on Malaya and Singapore was launched. Other factors of which the Japanese took full advantage were the preoccupations elsewhere of the Russian armies and the British Navy. Freedom from attack in the north and dominance of the China Sea were essential prerequisites of Japan's campaign. Russia's involvement with Germany made it almost a certainty that she would take no action along the Siberian front; Britain, too, was deeply committed and had had to weaken her sea forces in the East, although, it is true, two capital ships were at the last minute sent to the Pacific, where they fell victim to Japanese air attack within a few days. By her surprise attack on the American fleet in Pearl Harbour on December 7 Japan disposed of the last hindrance and secured naval superiority.

Betrayal of French Indo-China



JAPANESE ATTACK ON SARAWAK, NORTH-WEST BORNEO

The first Japanese landings were made on December 17, 1941, and little could be done by the scanty defence force but demolish the most important installations. Top, at the Miri oilfield (see map, p. 2058), Japanese prepare to 'go over the top'; the blaze comes from petroleum fired by the British garrison. Below, in another sector, an enemy light field gun goes into action.

Photos, Keystone



The Pearl Harbour attack and the campaigns in Malaya, Burma, the Philippines and the Netherlands East Indies are dealt with in earlier Chapters. Their pattern was straightforward and ably executed, and by their successful completion the Japanese achieved—at least temporarily—their prime objectives. These were, quite simply, the isolation of China from her sources of supply and the harnessing of the resources of south-east Asia to the Japanese war machine. A less immediate but still vital objective of the operations initiated at Pearl Harbour was the creation of a defensible zone around the positions won in south-east Asia. The Japanese leaders realized that the situation in Europe gave them a chance of a reasonable period in which to consolidate their gains and to prepare for the defence of their newly-won Empire against the eventual Allied counter-attack. Therefore they carried their campaign in some directions beyond the confines of the economic sphere they sought to exploit.

The first stage in this type of operation was the investment of Guam, the lone American outpost between the Japanese mandated Caroline and Mariana Islands. Guam fell to overwhelming superiority on December 10, 1941; Wake Island, another American Pacific outpost, which lies north of the Marshall group (also



ATTACK ON MARSHALL AND GILBERT ISLANDS

U.S. Naval forces attacked Japanese bases on February 1, 1942: aerodromes, warehouses and shipping were bombed; eight enemy warships were sunk and 41 aircraft destroyed. Top, Wotje Atoll, with fuel and ammunition dumps on fire; in right background two enemy ships have been bombed and are making for the beach. Below, refuelling Grumman 'Martlet' Fleet Fighters on a carrier during the operations. *Photos, Associated Press; Wide World Photos*



under Japanese mandate), was captured on Christmas Eve after a heroic defence by a tiny garrison of 400 men. Other minor operations in the first phase of the Japanese offensive—which may be considered to have ended with the occupation of Java on March 9, 1942—included attacks on British North Borneo and Sarawak, both weakly defended. These attacks preceded those on the Dutch parts of Borneo, but conformed in general to the same pattern (*see* Chapter 207). Of North Borneo a British official was reputed to have said, when asked about defence plans against a Japanese invasion, "We'd just have to ask them up to tea!" It was, in fact, attacked on December 17, 1941, and not seriously defended. Sarawak was just as helpless, and the enemy landed at Kuching, its capital, on Christmas Day, 1941. Small British and Indian forces fought a delaying action for a week in order to cover the demolition of oil wells at Miri, north of the capital. Then they retired into Dutch Borneo, where, linking up with Dutch garrisons, they played a valiant part for weeks in harassing the Japanese and delaying their penetration into the country. Many later escaped to Java.

Apart from the occupation of Guam and Wake, the second phase of the Japanese offensive—the seizing of a strategic fence of islands round her main

conquests—opened with the occupation on January 23, 1942, of Rabaul in New Britain and of Kavieng in neighbouring New Ireland. Rabaul, which the Japanese were later to turn into an important forward base, had previously been bombed (on January 4), and, as elsewhere, the small garrison proved insufficient seriously to contest the heavy Japanese attack. Consolidation of the Rabaul landing was considerably hampered by the activities of the few bombers then available to the Royal Australian Air Force in the area. Five raids were made on the port within the first fortnight of Japanese occupation and considerable damage inflicted.

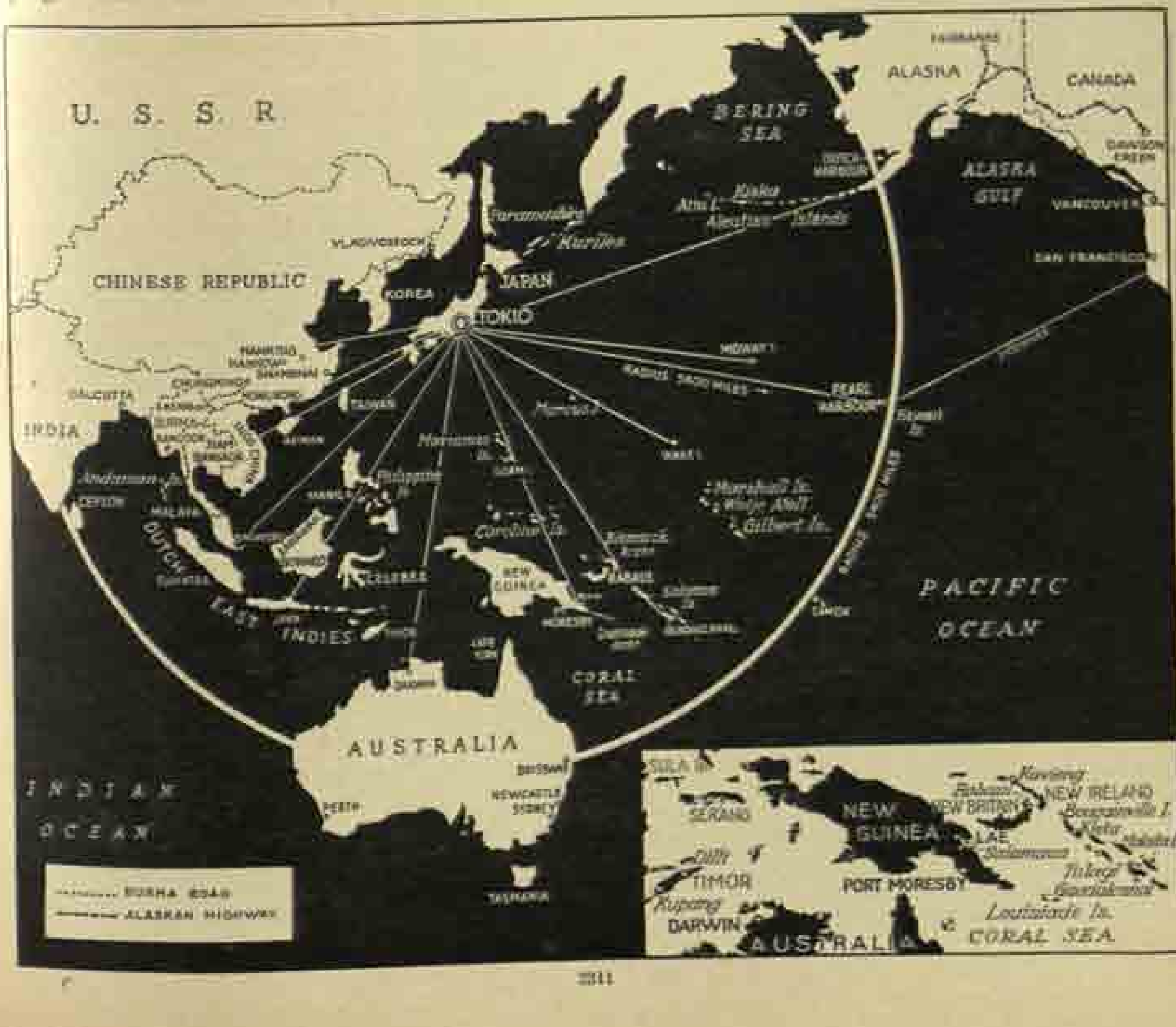
Throughout this period Allied resistance outside the main areas of Malaya, Java, Burma and the Philippines was of necessity mainly confined to scattered raids by small bomber forces against points of Japanese occupation, and especially on Japanese transports and warships throughout the Indies archipelago. These attacks could not be concentrated owing to the weak forces at the disposal of the Allied Command, and could not have any important immediate effect in checking the Japanese advance. Their chief value lay in the damage they caused to the enemy's shipping resources, whose maintenance at as high a level as possible was vital for the supply of scattered garrisons and the economic exploitation of the conquered territories.

The Japanese also were very active in the air at this time. Aided by the absence of naval opposition and the Allies' lack of efficient fighters, they were able quickly to bring New Guinea and Northern Australia within range of their aircraft. As in Malaya and Burma, they showed great ability in speedily putting into service captured airfields, while at the same time they were able to make effective use of carrier-borne aircraft. Port Moresby in Papua was raided for the first time on February 2, and attacked regularly thereafter from bases in New Britain (see illus., p. 2103). On February 19 the Australian mainland was attacked for the first time, Darwin having two raids, in one of which a hospital ship in the harbour was hit (see illus., p. 2102).

Meanwhile, on February 1 the Allies had delivered their first counter-offensive blow, an air-sea raid directed by a U.S. task force against bases in the Marshall Islands. This daring assault on the fringe of their zone of naval dominance evidently caught the Japanese by

SPRAWLING TENTACLES OF THE JAPANESE WAR MACHINE

This map conveys an idea of the immense extent of Japanese operations in the Pacific and the Indian Ocean. The arc shown in white has a radius from Tokyo of 3,400 miles. Only by the exploitation of treachery and the advantage of surprise which it afforded could Japan have so swiftly overrun such distant areas. The key to her initial success was the yielding up of territory in Indo-China by the Vichy Government. In the period reviewed in this Chapter a beginning was made in lopping off some of the tentacles.





EXPLOITS OF 'SPARROW FORCE' ON TIMOR

After the Japanese invaded Timor at the end of February 1942, the defenders formed guerilla bands which came to be called 'Sparrow Force' and harassed the enemy for more than a year. Top, Australian guerillas and friendly natives dash through a hostile village after firing the huts. Below, three of the guerillas sniping the Japanese; 600 of the enemy were killed in all for the loss of 17 of Sparrow Force.

Photos, British News Reels



surprise at a time when major attention was focused on operations in the south-west. Serious damage was done to shore installations of all types. In addition, eight warships and eight other vessels were sunk by bombs or naval gunfire and 41 aircraft destroyed. The Allies lost no ships and only five aircraft. Similar attacks were made on February 24 and March 4 on Wake Island and Marcus Island respectively. The latter is only 1,000 miles from Japan proper, and the destruction of air base facilities, fuel and munition dumps and radio equipment was a warning to Japan of the renaissance of American sea-power in at least one important area of the Pacific. As in the first raid, opposition to Admiral Halsey's force was slight, and his total losses in the two operations were only two aircraft. (*See* illus. p. 2083.)

Like the Allied air activity north of Australia, however, these raids could only be in the nature of hit-and-run affairs, and did not check the methodical pursuit by the Japanese of their immediate strategic objectives. On February 20 they landed in Portuguese Timor, which had been under protective occupation by a mixed Dutch-Australian force since the early days of the war, and secured the useful aerodrome at Dilli, the capital. Four days later they secured another airfield within convenient range of Darwin and other north-west Australian ports by a parachute landing at Kupang, on the southern (Dutch) end of Timor.

Falling back into the hilly interior of the island, the defenders organized a group of guerilla bands, which became known as Sparrow Force. With a makeshift radio set, their commander, Capt. G. Laidlaw, established communication with Australia, and medical supplies, mail and food were flown to them. For over a year after the Japanese landings, the guerillas continued to spread terror among the enemy by lightning raids on occupied villages and camps.

Just as methodically the Japanese moved forward at the other extremity of their south-western defensive arc, occupying (February 19) Kieta, on Bougainville Island, largest of the Solomons. As a diversion, and probably mainly for political reasons, a large submarine appeared off the coast of California on February 23 and shelled oil refineries near Santa Barbara.

U-Boat off California

On March 8 the threat to Australia was carried a step farther by landings at Lae and Salamaua, in New Guinea. Our garrisons at these places had been evacuated after the fall of Rabaul, but the landing was made costly by an Allied raid on shipping off Salamaua three days later. American heavy bombers, reported in action in this area for the first time, took part in this attack, which was on a bigger scale than previous ones. The cost to the Japanese was estimated at 13 transports probably rendered useless. On March 11 a more important attack on Lae and Salamaua was carried out, this time by naval as well as air forces, both American and Australian. Two of the enemy's heavy cruisers and five transports were destroyed and other vessels damaged for the loss of one Allied aircraft. Two days later another heavy cruiser was sunk in an R.A.A.F. raid on Rabaul.

By the end of March these activities, together with the increasing toll of Japanese aircraft taken as the Allied air forces concentrated more strength in the north Australia area, were beginning to check Japanese movements. American submarines ranging Far Eastern waters were becoming increasingly effective in hampering the flow of sea traffic to and from the conquered regions. In New

Guinea, at least, the enemy was comparatively quiescent on land throughout April. In the air also a progressive though slight slackening in the weight and tempo of attacks on Port Moresby and Darwin was apparent. Throughout the month Allied aircraft bombed enemy bases (principally Lae, Salamaua, Kupang and Rabaul) in increasing strength.

Japanese at Tulagi

Farther east the Japanese were more active during March and April, occupying additional points in the Solomons and the Louisiade Islands, which control the northern entry into the Coral Sea. Something of a naval establishment was built up on Tulagi (which provided a protected anchorage between the larger islands of Guadalcanal and Malaita), while the Japanese chain of airfields was extended through these island groups. These preparations culminated at the beginning of May in the appearance off the Solomons of a considerable Japanese fleet, including both warships and transports. The intended destination of this armada is not known, though it was presumably either Port Moresby or some point on the north-east coast of Australia. Allied reconnaissance had been well aware of the preparations being made in this area, and the enemy fleet was intercepted. Sufficient force was mustered to inflict a crushing defeat on the enemy in a naval battle (begun off the Solomons and continued in the Coral Sea), in which the opposing fleets attacked each other only with carrier-borne aircraft and in which General MacArthur's land-based heavy bombers played an important part (see pp. 2083–85).

This defeat appears to have checked (at least for the period under review) Japanese attempts at extending and reinforcing their south-west Pacific ring of defensive positions. Nevertheless, they continued to maintain powerful air forces along the line Kupang–Lae–Rabaul, and both Port Moresby and Darwin came under repeated attack during May and June. To these raids American and Australian bombers made increasingly heavy reply, though neither side had the resources to hand for a sustained offensive move. The only other Japanese activity was the use off the eastern Australian coast of the same type of midget submarine as had taken part in the Pearl Harbour attack. Four of these craft were sunk in a daring but abortive attack on Sydney Harbour on June 1, in which only one small Australian vessel was hit (see illus., pp. 1969 and 2106.) A week later the suburbs of Sydney and the town of Newcastle, 100 miles to the north, were shelled by submarines, of which at least three were sunk by Allied aircraft off the Australian coast in early June. These attacks cannot have been intended as more than diversions, and Mr. Curtin, Australian Prime Minister, summed up the strategic situation in the south-west Pacific after the Coral Sea battle when he said, on June 2, that Japan's programme of constant expansion had at last suffered stalemate, and that she "had found her most southerly venture

AMERICAN BOMBERS HIT BACK AT KISKA

In time with her attack on Midway Island, Japan bombed Dutch Harbour, in the Aleutians, and four days later (June 7) seized the outlying Aleutian islands of Attu and Kiska, then ungarrisoned. Less than a week later the U.S.A. announced that her aircraft had sunk a Japanese transport and hit a cruiser in Kiska harbour (below).

Photo, "New York Times" Photos



beyond her capacity to execute according to her plans."

At the same time, the Japanese navy was not idle in the long quiescent theatre of the central and northern Pacific. Here an initial failure to follow up the occupation of Guam and Wake by the capture of Midway Island had left a serious gap in the defensive ring, as had been shown by the American raids on the Marshall and Gilbert Islands, Marcus Island, and Wake itself. The Japanese accordingly set under way in May what was probably their largest naval enterprise of the war. Twin expeditions were launched: the more important went directly across the central Pacific with the object of occupying Midway, and probably also of seizing Hawaii; the lesser was directed northward from the Kuriles towards the comparatively undefended outer islands of the Aleutians. The first expedition was entirely broken up in the Battle of Midway (see pp. 2084–85)—another and larger encounter of the Coral Sea type. Admiral King, Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Fleet, said afterwards that the action might have decided the *future* centre of the war in the Pacific. It certainly discouraged any further Japanese enterprises on a like scale or in the same direction.

Midway and the Aleutians



TORPEDOED JAPANESE DESTROYER GOES DOWN

This photograph was taken through the periscope of an American submarine operating in the Western Pacific. Two torpedoes had just been fired at the large enemy destroyer seen sinking. On the forward gun turret is the symbol of the Rising Sun; in the circles at the right can be distinguished two Japanese in white uniform. The sloping line in centre (representing the vertical) and the shorter horizontal ones to its left are graduations on the periscope lens, used for sighting.

Photo, "New York Times" Photo



VICE-ADMIRAL WILLIAM F. HALSEY, Jr.

On October 24, 1942, Vice-Admiral Halsey succeeded Vice-Admiral Ghormley as Commander of the U.S. Naval Forces in the South Pacific. Halsey had commanded the task forces which made the successful raids on the Gilbert and Marshall Islands early in February, besides attacks on Marcus Island in February and Wake Island early in March.

Photo, Keystone

The real motive for the operations in the Aleutians is more difficult to discern, although the occupation of Kiska and Attu had a considerable political effect in the United States and Canada, where the threat to the continental mainland was felt in some quarters to be more acute than perhaps it actually was. The occupation of the two islands also served strategically to thrust away from Japan itself the starting point of any United Nations counter-attack using Alaska and the North Pacific. By establishing, however tenuously, air and sea bases some thousand miles eastward from the main base of Paramushiro in the Kuriles the Japanese also greatly extended their range of reconnaissance in this sector, and created, as seems to have been their plan elsewhere, outposts which might come in useful and would not be a serious loss if they proved untenable. Had the Midway action proved successful for Japan the complementary northern campaign might indeed have taken on a greater significance; it would have given her the possibility of air and sea patrols over a wide gap of water through which a hostile striking force could penetrate more readily than it could farther south, through the network of islands which Japan had sedulously fortified during the previous 10 years of her occupation under a League of Nations mandate.

But Midway was lost, and so decisively lost that here a major gap had to be left in the defensive ring. It was a larger, and would possibly prove an even more decisive, gap than that left by the Coral Sea defeat. After seven months of war Japan had gained her first offensive objectives—Burma, Malaya, the Philippines and the Netherlands East Indies. But she *had* failed to complete her strategy by quarantining China and by cushioning south-east Asia against the inevitable counter-attack of the United Nations. She had been forced to go to war with the Western Powers without fulfilling the shrewd maxim of Tanaka: "To conquer the world we must first conquer *China*." She had failed in China itself to hold the air bases from which her key cities and industries could be attacked (see Chapter 230). She had failed both in the central and the south-west Pacific to achieve her long-term defensive aim—the protection of areas from which she hoped to draw strength for defeat of her enemies' counter-attack and for her own further advance towards "Hakko Ichiu." Her remaining hope was that the long continuance of the war in Europe would give her time for consolidation and the building up of sufficient resources to complete her defence zone, before the United Nations' rising tide of production and man-power could be fully employed against her.

Where Japan Failed

Diary of the War

JULY and AUGUST, 1942

July 1, 1942. Germans reach El Alamein line; heavy fighting. General Auchinleck in an order to 8th Army calls for supreme effort. Anglo-Russian agreement for £25,000,000 credit to U.S.S.R.

July 2. Germans withdraw westward from El Alamein. British forces occupy Mayotte island in Mozambique Channel.

July 3. Russians evacuate Sevastopol.

July 4. Germans reach the Don on a broad front; Russians retreat at Kursk and Byelgorod. In the Aleutians, U.S. submarine sinks three Japanese destroyers and sets another on fire.

July 7. Heavy fighting in region of Voronezh, on the Don.

July 8. Russian submarine hits German battleship "Tirpitz" with two torpedoes in Barents Sea.

July 10. British and Imperial forces counter-attack from El Alamein. Russians evacuate Rossosh; they counter-attack to relieve pressure upon Voronezh.

July 11. Eighth Army captures Tel el Eisa station. Strong German attack reaches outskirts of Voronezh.

July 12. Russians evacuate Kantemirovka and Lisichansk. Germans drive S.E. down the Donetz and E. towards Millerovo.

July 13. Russians evacuate Boguchar and Millerovo. Stalingrad threatened by the German drive. Coal mines in Britain brought under Government control.

July 14. Germans win back some ground at Tel el Eisa; our forces attack in centre and secure Ruweisat ridge. Free French movement changes name to "Fighting French."

July 16. R.A.F. bombs Luebeck and Flensburg in daylight.

July 17. Russians hold Germans at Voronezh, but give ground in centre on Don. Australians advance S.W. from El Alamein and take a ridge.

July 19. Russians announce loss of Voroshilovgrad.

July 20. Eighth Army advances ten miles in the south at El Alamein, its left flank on the Qattara depression. Russians recapture bridge-heads at Voronezh.

July 21. Eighth Army attacks at night along 30-mile front. Japanese land at Gona (Papua). U.S. submarines sink three Japanese destroyers at Kiska.

July 22. Russians make progress in Voronezh sector; they withdraw in Rostov area. Germans reach Tsymlyanskaya and Novocherkassk.

July 23. Russians hold positions on west bank of Don.

July 24. Eighth Army holds all Ruweisat ridge and Makh Khad ridge. Germans claim to have stormed Rostov.

July 25. Japanese aircraft bomb Townsville, Queensland. Germans cross Don at Tsymlyanskaya; they advance from Kamensk towards the Don elbow.

July 26. Advance by Eighth Army in northern sector. Chocolate and sweets rationing begins in Britain. Germans claim to have penetrated Russian lines S. of Chirskaya on W. bank of Don. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raid on Hamburg.

July 27. Russians announce evacuation of Rostov and Novocherkassk. Germans claim to have reached Bataisk, 10 m. S. of the Don. German aircraft bomb Stalingrad. Timoshenko withdraws from lower Don and concentrates forces in Don elbow, opposite Stalingrad.

July 28. Germans claim to have crossed Lower Don in force and to have reached Manych-Sal area; also to have entered Kalach. Russians hold the enemy along the Chir river, where a great battle rages. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raid on Hamburg; German aircraft bomb Birmingham.

July 29. Fierce battle at Kletskaya, 80 m. N.W. of Stalingrad on W. bank of Don; in the Don elbow, Timoshenko sends in his reserves and halts the German drive towards the Volga.

July 30. Germans claim capture of Proletarskaya. Canadian Senate passes Conscription Bill. *Night.*—Germans bomb Midland towns.

July 31. Germans claim capture of Kushchevsk and to be advancing on a wide front towards Salsk. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raid on Dusseldorf.

August 1, 1942. Heavy German attack in Don bend fails.

August 2. Germans claim to have reached Salsk and upper Kuban.

August 4. Germans advance in Caucasus and near Kotelnikovo; they cross the Kuban river.

August 5. Germans capture Kotelnikovo and Voroshilovsk.

August 6. Queen Wilhelmina addresses U.S. Congress at Washington.

August 7. U.S. forces land in Solomons (Guadalcanal-Tulagi area). Heavy fighting near Armavir, where Germans claim a break-through.

August 8. Russians fire Maikop oil wells. Japanese counter-attack in Solomons is repelled.

August 9. Germans claim capture of Maikop and Krasnodar. In India, Gandhi and Congress members arrested.

August 11. Axis submarines attack British convoy en route from Gibraltar to Malta; aircraft carrier "Eagle" lost; in further actions we lost also the cruiser "Manchester," the older cruiser "Cairo" and the destroyer "Foresight." Germans reach Caucasian foothills at Cherkessk. U.S. bombers attack Italian cruisers at Navarino. *Night.*—R.A.F. bombers make heavy raid on Mainz.

August 12. Mr. Churchill arrives in Moscow for conference with Premier Stalin. Russians in Cherkessk region withdraw; in Moscow sector they begin an offensive.

August 13. British Naval force under Admiral Vian bombs island of Rhodes. Russians counter-attack in Stalingrad and Voronezh sectors. Germans claim the capture of Elista, 130 miles W. of Astrakhan; they reach Mineralniye Vody and Georgievsk.

August 15. Russians driven back in Kalach and Kotelnikovo areas. Five Brazilian ships sunk by U-boat.

August 16. Russians report evacuation of Maikop.

August 17. All-American bomber force attacks targets at Rouen. Raid by American Marines on Makin island (Gilbert group).

August 18. General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander apptd. C.-in-C. Middle East; Lieut.-Gen. Sir B. L. Montgomery to command 8th Army. Germans cross Kuban at Krasnodar.

August 19. British Special Service Troops and Canadians carry out reconnaissance in force in Dieppe area; operation lasts nine hours, our casualties being 3,350 out of 5,000 engaged. We also lost destroyer "Berkeley" and 98 aircraft. Russians evacuate Krasnodar.

August 20. Loss of H.M.A.S. "Canberra" (heavy cruiser) in Solomons announced. U.S. bombers attack objectives in Amiens; nearly 500 R.A.F. fighters carry out daylight sweep over N. France.

August 22. Loss of H.M. submarine "Upholder" announced. Brazil declares war upon Germany and Italy.

August 23. General Sir H. Maitland Wilson apptd. G.O.C. Iran-Iraq Command. Germans claim capture of Krimskaya and Kurchanskaya (Kuban sector). R.A.F. daylight raid on Emden.

August 24. Mr. Churchill returns to England. Germans penetrate Russian defences N.W. of Kotelnikovo. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raids on Wiesbaden and Frankfurt.

August 25. H.R.H. the Duke of Kent killed in an aeroplane crash. Big naval battle in Solomons; six Japanese warships (including two aircraft-carriers) damaged. Germans within 40 miles of Stalingrad.

August 26. Japanese counter-attack on Guadalcanal beaten off; six enemy ships (including two destroyers) sunk. Japanese land at Milne Bay, in S.E. Papua. Germans reach Mozdok.

August 27. In Moscow offensive the Russians isolate Rzhev; at Stalingrad they counter-attack to the N.W. Lord Moyne apptd. Deputy Minister of State in Middle East. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raids on Cassel and Gdynia.

August 28. Russian offensive S. of Lake Ladoga, in Leningrad area; at Stalingrad the Germans pierce Russian lines in S.W. *Night.*—Heavy R.A.F. raids on Saarbruecken and Nuremberg.

August 29. Japanese take off some of their troops from Milne Bay. Russians in Leningrad area penetrate German line at Rzhev; also attack in Bryansk area.

August 30. Russians check enemy advance N.W. and S.W. of Stalingrad. *Night.*—Russian aircraft bomb Berlin, Koenigsberg, Danzig and Stettin.

August 31. Rommel opens an offensive from El Himeimat.





WITH THE AMERICAN ARMY IN BRITAIN

The United States troops brought their own weapons and equipment; top left, artillerymen at practice with a heavy 155-mm. field gun; it fires a 95-lb. shell, and has a range of 25,000 yards. Right, U.S. Military Police on duty in London; note the truncheon carried. Below, preceded by General Grant tanks, U.S. infantry advance over rough country in Northern Ireland in the course of battle training exercises.

Photos, Central Press; Planet News



AMERICA'S STRATEGY IN HER FIRST TWELVE MONTHS OF THE WAR

This Chapter, from the pen of Hanson W. Baldwin, Military Editor of the 'New York Times,' sets out the underlying strategy of the United States High Command as it was related to the global strategy of the United Nations during the period. The author explains the defensive pattern of the first disastrous months, which before long gave place to a vigorous offensive—not only in the fighting services but in the workshops, shipyards and factories

The first twelve months of U.S. participation in the war was a period of great victories and considerable defeats, of danger and of crisis. It was a time in which the United States, with its Allies, fought desperately and successfully to avert defeat, a period in which the United States became in truth the "arsenal of democracy," a period in which our strength was mobilized and mustered and the initiative gradually passed to the United Nations. In a few months more came the turning point of the war, when the Allies passed from defence to offence.

It is difficult to describe American strategy in this period without describing the global strategy of the United Nations, for the two are inseparable. The strategic concepts that underlay the employment of American armed forces were sometimes solely American in origin, particularly in areas such as Alaska and the Aleutians, where U.S interests were chiefly involved. But even in these areas American strategy was influenced and delimited by the need to interrelate the strategy of the area with that of the wider field. Especially was this true in the early months of the American war effort, for shipping canalized and restricted all overseas operations, and had to be allocated in accordance with carefully calculated priorities agreed to by the United Nations.

When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, the United States was engaged in a hurried but belated effort to strengthen the Philippines and Hawaii and was caught unprepared. There was never any hope of holding the Philippines. Indeed, it was quite evident before the end of December 1941 that it was only a question of time before the U.S. forces there would be overwhelmed and the High Command would revert, strategically, to that concept which by force of necessity had guided its Philippine plans for many years. The islands were a delaying position that would inevitably be overrun. But the Pearl Harbour attack—probably successful beyond the wildest hopes of the Japanese—dealt a heavy blow to the prestige, morale and fighting strength of U.S. sea power; and for a time it was greatly feared that this setback presaged a serious enemy attack upon the mid-Pacific base which was the key to the entire Pacific position. Had Hawaii fallen in those early days the Aleutians, the Alaskan mainland and probably the west coast of the U.S.A. would have been exposed to attack.

America's first strategic reaction, therefore, was convulsive but sound:

ON THE ALLIES' SUPPLY LINE IN THE PACIFIC

The French island of New Caledonia, in the Western Pacific, 1,077 miles east of Sydney, was one of a string of Pacific bases manned and strengthened by the Allies during 1942. American soldiers, sent here to reinforce the Fighting French garrison, are clambering from their landing barges on to a quayside. Note the tricolour at the flagstaff behind.

Photo, Keystone







ALASKA, AMERICA'S MOST NORTHERLY OUTPOST

Had Japan succeeded in occupying Hawaii it is probable that an attack would have been launched against the American mainland in Alaska. U.S. bases were hastily manned in that area and a supply road from Canada begun (see illus. in opposite page). Below, two dog-teams of the U.S. Army Quartermaster Corps pass between deep snow drifts. Top, an American cargo aircraft about to unload supplies in Alaska.

Photos, Sport & General ; Pictorial Press

troops and planes were rushed as quickly as possible to Hawaii and the west coast; some were started towards the Philippines, but so rapid was the Japanese march of conquest to the Malay barrier that, though efforts were made, all hope of supplying and reinforcing the Philippines had swiftly to be abandoned. In the meantime, as immediate emergency was met, a more deliberate strategy was formulated at Washington in that first important meeting between President Roosevelt and Mr. Winston Churchill at the end of December. Despite immediate preoccupation with the Pacific, American military leaders agreed, as it was obvious they would do, that Germany was the main enemy and that their main effort should be developed first against the Reich, while holding Japan in the Pacific. This basic concept was strengthened and reinforced by later events and remained the cardinal point—with modifications permitted by the improved situation—in the global strategy of the United Nations.

Out of this concept grew numerous other corollaries. Russia was the principal battlefront against Germany; she was also a Pacific power, and half a million Japanese troops were neutralized opposite her Siberian frontiers. She was a strategical common denominator of the greatest importance, and obviously must be strengthened. In due course Russia received Lease-Lend priority, and there began that swiftly increasing flow of weapons and materials of war. Even prior to America's entrance into the war the American Administration had laid down another cardinal point: the integrity of the British Isles against conquest was to be ensured at almost all costs.

These were and continued to be, with minor modifications, the fundamental policies and strategical concepts—basic factors which governed the transportation and distribution of American troops, ships and planes and the allocation of the U.S. military effort.

Early Defensive Strategy

Until the Battle of the Solomons in the Pacific and the victory won by the British Eighth Army at El Alamein, American strategy in both the Atlantic and the Pacific had been largely defensive. In addition to manufacturing and transporting large quantities of equipment and supplies to Russia, Britain, China and other United Nations, the immediate task was to provide for the security beyond any doubt of American bases and supply lines, and to procure and develop as quickly as possible other bases from which offensive action against the enemy might some day be launched.

In the Atlantic this effort was immediately complicated by the extension of the German submarine war to the American coast. At the outset shipping losses were extremely serious—partly because of the dispersion of the U.S. fleet in several oceans, partly because many of the most useful anti-submarine craft had been transferred to the British flag, and also because of an inadequate estimate of the potentialities of U-boat warfare. But anti-submarine services on the east coast were ultimately built up to an organization that soon numbered tens of thousands of men,









HIGHWAY OF VAST ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Built as a military road along which supplies for United States forces in Alaska could be sent, the Alaska Highway opened up regions of great potentialities. It was completed on October 29, 1942. 1. The Canadian terminal, at Edmonton (Alberta), 1,671 miles from the Alaskan end at Fairbanks (see map). 2. Laying a summer track across a dry, sandy river bed. 3. Making an embankment across a valley. 4. U.S. Army mechanic repairs a lorry. 5. An American jeep in the Alaskan sector.

Photos, Canadian Official; Associated Press; Sport & General; Paul Popper. Map by courtesy of "Compressed Air Magazine"





hundreds of planes, hundreds of ships and thousands of small craft.

In the Pacific the problem of providing secure bases and supply lines was complicated by the fall of Singapore. After the Philippines had been cut off, America's immediate efforts were directed towards holding the Malay barrier. The conquest of Singapore, however, forced her back upon Australia in the south, upon the line Hawaii–Midway in the central Pacific, and upon Alaska–Aleutians in the North. The immediate task then was to provide supply lines to all these places and to strengthen or create bases. The task was pushed through with vigour in the first six months of 1942, just as the anti-submarine war was speeded up in the Atlantic. Hawaii was built up into a strong base and the outlying islands well garrisoned; Alaska and the Aleutians were hastily manned with troops and a supply road started across Canada. A string of island bases curving southward from Hawaii to Australia was developed and manned—Palmyra Is., Johnston Is., Canton (Phoenix Islands), Funafuti (Ellice Islands), the Fijis and New Caledonia. In many places the garrisons were quite large, considering the size of the islands. Further, New Zealand and Australia were reinforced by American troops and aircraft.

The main characteristic of the first months of war was "sweat and toil." The task of providing secure ocean supply lines was paralleled by that of setting up air ferry and air supply lines. Army and Navy planes began to span the Pacific and the Atlantic as if they were lakes. Small groups of Americans, many of them "green" from a farm in Iowa or with the provincial savoir-faire of a New York street-corner, found themselves dumped on some tiny atoll or set down in the midst of a South American or African jungle. This phase of United States strategy began to be replaced by a more dynamic policy, which it had made possible, some time after May 1942.

Ocean Supply Lines

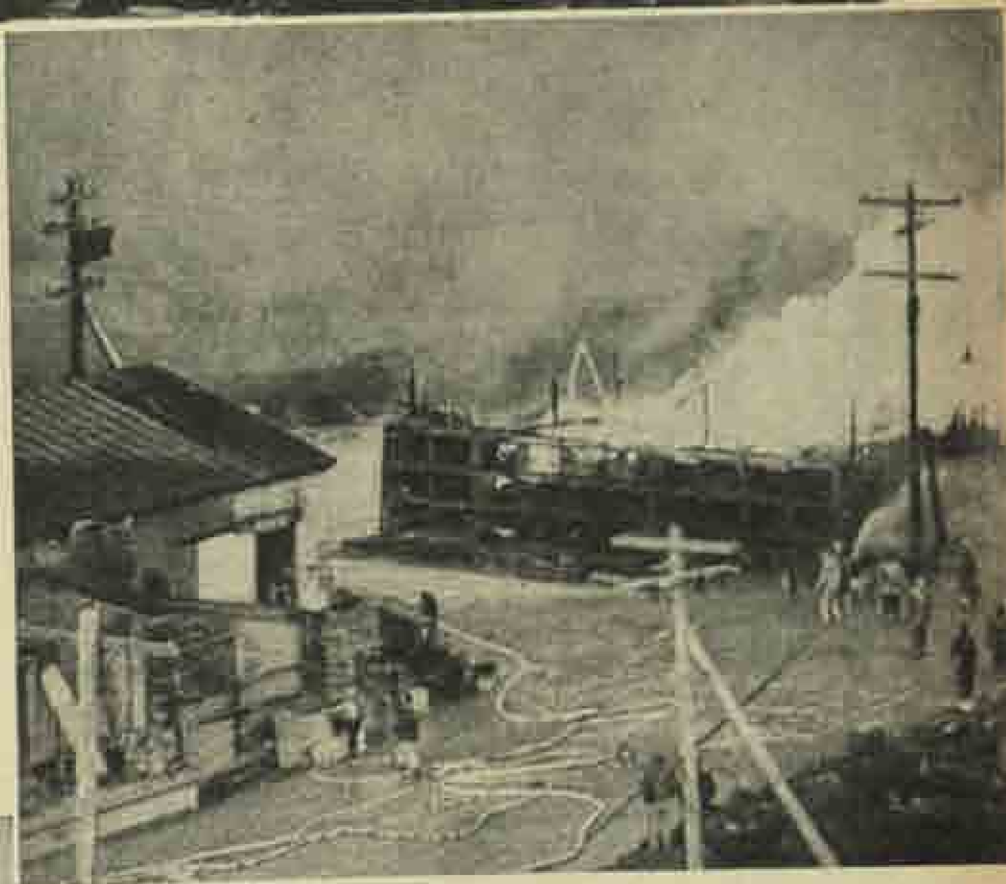


HITTING BACK AT JAPAN IN THE ALEUTIANS

Early in October 1942 the United States Government stated that islands of the Andreanof group of the Aleutians had been occupied by American forces, and airfields established from which the enemy on Kiska island could be attacked. Top, an American soldier mans a .50-calibre machine-gun on a beach in the Andreanof islands. Below, examining a Japanese Zero fighter shot down by a U.S. Navy patrol plane. *Photos, Associated Press*







BOMBING OF DUTCH HARBOUR

Dutch Harbour, in the Aleutian Islands, was attacked by Japanese aircraft on June 3-4, 1942, when warehouses were set on fire but no serious damage was done, despite extravagant enemy claims. Top, enemy bombs bursting in the water; the U.S. ship in background fought off raiders with machine-gun fire. Centre, right, blazing sheds in the dock area. Below, U.S. soldiers and marines fight the fires.

Photos, Associated Press; Keystone

Along the Atlantic coast the convoy system was initiated, and submarine sinkings started to drop off immediately.

In the Pacific the naval-air Battle of the Coral Sea turned the Japanese back in their drive towards the Solomons and Australia, and the subsequent Battle of Midway defeated what was undoubtedly a major effort to capture Midway and Hawaii. These defensive victories were not accomplished without heavy cost: naval losses in the Pacific were higher than any in American history. Hundreds of merchant ships were sunk, and an alert enemy ensconced himself in Attu and Kiska, the outermost of the Aleutian Islands, both at that time ungarrisoned. The headlines of these months emphasized the spectacular—The Doolittle Raid on Tokyo; The Gilberts Raid; American Submarine Activities in the Pacific; Arrival of American Troops in Britain; Battles of Midway and the Coral Sea; The Philippines. But the real successes were unspectacular victories of man-power, of muscle, of energy—of factory and machine. They were victories in the first and fundamental basis of all American strategy: to hold at any cost bases and areas that were absolutely essential; to relinquish if



necessary others not so essential; to strengthen vital bases beyond danger; to provide secure sea and air supply lines to all global fronts; and to build up, organize, train, equip and prepare American fighting forces while also helping to equip those of the Allies; to harass the enemy and drain his strength as much as possible in a war of attrition while the U.S.A. gained strength with time. These aims were accomplished, and gradually in the summer and autumn of 1942 the initiative began to swing to the United Nations.

The new phase started with the landing on Guadalcanal in the southern Solomons (August 1942). The operation was really defensive-offensive—intended to provide a diversion for Russia, then worried about the possibility of a Japanese attack upon Siberia, and to prevent gradual Japanese encroachment toward America's ocean supply lines to Australia. The Solomons operations evolved, somewhat unexpectedly, into a long-drawn-out campaign of attrition, which America almost lost but which finally showed a handsome profit. At the same time the Australians and General Douglas MacArthur's forces in New Guinea undertook a limited offensive, which resulted in wiping out the Japanese bases at Buna and Gona and providing greater security for the important Allied base at Port Moresby. Simultaneously the "sweat and toil" of the first few months was beginning to show tangible benefits. When Rommel threatened Egypt the U.S.A. was able to fly scores of bombers to the Middle East, besides anti-tank guns and other equipment which helped to save the day. Similarly the sea supply lines provided the sinews which gave Montgomery's magnificent Eighth Army strength to win the turning-point victory. There followed, in Russia, the great German winter defeats—particularly the catastrophe at Stalingrad—and now the trend towards the offensive was unmistakable. Just as the German tide first began to ebb in Russia, American and British troops landed in North Africa (November 8, 1942), and undertook the largest offensive operations, outside the Eighth Army's victory, either nation had hitherto attempted.



STIFFENING THE DEFENCES IN HAWAII

For some months in the early part of 1942 Hawaii seemed likely to be faced with a Japanese invasion, since this mid-Pacific base was the key to the entire Pacific position. Troops and aircraft were hurried to the islands, and extensive underground installations were built. Here is the entrance to an advanced first-aid dug-out. *Photo, Keystone*

Subsequent events clearly revealed American strategic concepts. In the Pacific, U.S. forces continued to wage a war of attrition and harassment against Japan. In Asia, the Allied air forces were reinforced so as to aid the Chinese and to wear down the enemy's strength in the air. None of these efforts were major ones, but all were essential to the preparation for the day of major operations. One such big operation was the Anglo-American campaign in North Africa. There were indications that the Mediterranean operations might soon be rivalled in importance by air operations by American bombers based in Britain, for the strength of the United States Eighth Army Air Force was being built up very rapidly so as to cooperate with the R.A.F. in a major aerial onslaught upon Germany.

Here, then, was the global pattern of American strategy. The U.S.A. adhered to its original concepts and kept clearly in mind the basic priorities—the vital importance of supplying Britain and Russia, China and other Allies. Further, with the aid and cooperation of the other United Nations, it created supply lines and built bases that were secure. At the end of 1942 the American view of future strategy could be summed up briefly as follows. With Hitler then besieged in his own "Festung Europa," the U.S. forces were extending the wearing-down effects of the naval blockade to the interior of that fortress by heavy and consistent bombing. Further ahead still, Americans were preparing for the first real attempt to breach the ramparts of the German fortified system in Europe, envisaged for some time in 1943.

Plainly the contemporary and future efforts were offensive, and the days of a hampered defensive war were past.

Switch to the Offensive

The American concept was never otherwise after Pearl Harbour, and only stern necessity had imposed the preliminary defensive phase. The U.S.A. intended to hit the enemy wherever he might be found, and to strike him hard. There was a growing faith in air power, but few American leaders believed that they could count upon bombing Germany or Japan into submission, and the strategic plans were predicated upon the assumption that big land operations would have to follow. The air forces would bomb first to soften up and prepare; then, in both continents the armies would assault and attack in order to occupy and conquer.

In the Pacific war zone important victories had been won in the north and south, but it was likely that the central area—Hawaii, Midway, Wake Island and the Marshall Islands—might come under the strategic spotlight in view of the increasing importance of Burma and China in war plans. Americans believed in attack, but they realized that attack had been made possible only by holding on to much that they had when war broke out in December 1941—by helping the United Nations to defend what was vital, and by a reasoned defensive strategy backed up by the sweat and toil of factories and supply lines. Though the purely defensive phase had been outrun, the strategy still remained one of supply, and such it would continue until the final overthrow of the Axis in Europe and the Orient.



AIR PATROL OVER MIDWAY ISLAND

Though raided a number of times up to June 3, 1942, and then attacked by a strong enemy naval force which was routed with heavy losses (see p. 2084), the American Pacific base of Midway Island held fast, an outpost 2,800 miles from Tokyo. By its stand it prevented the invasion of Hawaii. In this photograph U.S. Douglas Dauntless dive-bombers are guarding Midway.

Photo, Keystone



INTERNATIONAL HIGHWAY FROM CANADA TO ALASKA

One-fifth of the Alaska-Canada Highway lies in Alaska (see map and illus. in p. 2319). When eventually it is finished off as a public road it will afford a 36-foot track suited for fast motor traffic. Teams working from each end met after closing the final gap in Yukon Territory on October 25, 1942. Top, U.S. lorries on a section with Rocky Mountains in background; below, the steep gradient here was reduced by a 'fill' at the bottom.

Photos, Canadian Official; Associated Press







AIDING HITLER IN RUSSIA

The assistance of Hungary and Rumania was essential to Germany in the Russian campaign, and both satellites soon began to suffer heavy losses, though Rumania complained with reason that her troops were sacrificed in preference to those of Hungary. Right, Marshal Antonescu (Rumanian Premier, who in September 1940 was styled 'Conducator' or leader) inspects a Rumanian position in the Crimean battle zone. Top, the General commanding a Hungarian Corps in the southern sector of the eastern front discusses the plan of campaign.

Photos, Keystone; Sport & General



FINNISH TROOPS EMBARK FOR THE ATTACK ON SORTAVALA

At the end of August 1941 the Finns recaptured Sortavala, on Lake Ladoga, from the Russians. By the close of the month Viipuri had been reoccupied, and soon the whole of the territory ceded to Russia under compulsion in March 1940 had been recovered. But Mannerheim did not halt in the 'holy war' which he had proclaimed on June 28, and his troops pushed on into Russian provinces.

Photo, Sport & General

HOME FRONT IN ITALY, JULY 1941 TO DECEMBER 1942

Eighteen months are covered in this review of domestic affairs inside Italy —a stern, hard year-and-a-half during which the Italian people had their hopes of victory raised, only to see them disappointed by the successes of the United Nations. At the end of the period Italy herself was threatened with invasion and already feeling the heavy blows of Allied bombers

In the 18 months that elapsed after the first anniversary of her entry into the war Italy passed through many vicissitudes. When on June 10, 1941, Mussolini addressed the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations he could claim the recent victory over Greece, which "remains in the Italian sphere of influence in the Mediterranean." He felt it in his blood that the Axis would win the war, he said in conclusion. Of his lost Empire in Africa he spoke little, though he "affirmed most categorically that we shall return to those territories." Thereafter, for 18 months, Mussolini remained silent, and only on December 2, 1942, did the Duce again make a public speech.

In the interim the Italians had seen Rommel's withdrawal westward to El Agheila in January 1942, his swift recoil that month to drive the Eighth Army back to Gazala, and his further advance at the end of May which gained him Tobruk and took the German-Italian forces into Egypt and up to El Alamein. They could hardly be blamed for thinking that the cities of Egypt were now within reach and had only to be grasped. Mussolini, with an imposing entourage, flew to Egypt ready for the triumphal entry into Alexandria and Cairo; medals had been struck to commemorate this event, and the stage was set for a Roman triumph. Egypt was told that the Axis Powers "solemnly confirmed their intention to respect and assure" her independence and sovereignty (July 4). But Rommel's armies got no farther, and on October 23 had come the Eighth Army's onslaught. Rommel retreated westward again, and a month later was back beyond Sirte.

Delusive Hopes of Victory

Coinciding with the great drive westward there had been the Allied landings in North Africa on November 8, 1942, with all that they portended. More than this, the war had been taken to Italy itself by the big R.A.F. raids on Genoa, Milan and Turin, whence many thousands had been evacuated by the end of November. It was against this background that Mussolini again faced the Chamber on December 2.

Increasing hardship, the succession of disappointments over the military situation (not forgetting the naval setbacks Italy had sustained), had produced an inevitable reaction from the theatrical pomp and ostentation of the Fascist regime. Another canker was the graft and corruption of Fascist officials, all the more prevalent when control from the centre had to be relaxed in wartime.

Italians who thought of the future must have been disconcerted by the continual Budget deficit. For the financial year 1941-42 Italy's expenditure was estimated to reach 96,000,000,000 lire, but revenue was only 31,000,000,000. Six years of war (including the Abyssinian and Spanish ventures) had cost Italy 82,000,000,000 lire (£1,125,000,000 at par, 1939).



WHEATFIELD IN THE CENTRE OF MILAN

Italy's normal wheat crop was four times as big as that of Britain in peacetime, but the 1941 yield fell short of Italian needs by one-sixth, and had to be supplemented by maize-flour and potatoes. Even open spaces in busy cities were ploughed up and sown to corn, as seen here in Milan. The bread ration for manual workers was 5 oz. per day per person.

Photo, Associated Press





PINCHBECK CAESAR'S DREAM OF CONQUEST

Mussolini flew to the battle zone in North Africa to inspect Italian troops a few weeks before the Eighth Army, on October 23, 1942, opened its great offensive which drove back the Axis Armies and culminated some months later in their expulsion from Africa. At the left he strikes an attitude with some of his troops. The medal shown below, right, was struck to signalize Mussolini's triumphant entry into Cairo as conqueror: it bears the date October 28, 1942, but by that time the Axis armies were in retreat westward, and a few days later Rommel, after seizing his ally's transport vehicles, had left thousands of Italians in the lurch at El Alamein. At the top some are being rounded up as prisoners by New Zealanders. The inscription on the medal reads 'Greatest Boldness and Courage.' Above this medal is one issued to commemorate the 'Italo-German campaign in Africa.' It shows the desert arch of Sirte, familiarly known to the Eighth as 'Marble Arch.'

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Keystone; "Daily Mail"





inflation was well on the way. Profits on share transactions were heavily taxed to stop people investing their money in industrial shares, as many had done. In March 1942 Mussolini addressed the representatives of People's Banks and admitted the danger of inflation and the fall in the purchasing power of the lira. Goods disappeared from the market when their prices were controlled; people were putting their money into real estate, so that they might have something tangible for it. By a new decree all war profits—instead of only 60 per cent of them as hitherto—were ordered to be invested in State loans registered in the holders' names.

Bread was rationed at 200 grammes per person per day in October 1941; manual workers got 300 and heavy workers 400 grammes (about 12 oz.).

Falling Corn Crops

The wheat crop of 71½ million quintals fell far short of normal consumption (85 million quintals). Maize flour and potatoes had been used to eke it out, but now both these were in short supply. In the following March the basic bread ration was cut from 200 to 150 grammes. Other foodstuffs, including beans, potatoes, milk, cheese and eggs, were brought under the rationing scheme in October 1941; hotel meals were drastically restricted, and in the following February meat meals, hitherto allowed on Saturdays and Sundays, were permitted to be served only on Saturdays at midday. A ban had been placed on petrol-driven motor-cars in the autumn, when also it was ordered that winter heating should be postponed until December. Gas for domestic consumption was cut down from the end of September. A few weeks later restaurants and places of amusement were ordered to close by 10 p.m. to save fuel. The rationing of clothing began on November 1.

Discontent was not confined to the lower ranks of society. Farinacci (former Secretary-General) wrote in the Regime Fascista on September 22, 1941, that the Fascist party had become an enormously top-heavy organization with rigid bureaucracy. Another newspaper—Popolo d'Italia—spoke of the party containing in its ranks an enormous mass trying to retard its progress, including Democrats, Socialists, Freemasons and Liberals. A purge of party officials followed soon after. At the end of 1941 Aldo Vidussoni became Secretary-General in place of Adelchi Serena, who had held the appointment since November 1940.

Steadily German infiltration increased and Nazi control was extended. On July 8, 1941, the new frontiers of partitioned Yugoslavia were settled by a German-Italian agreement (see map, p. 1876). At the end of August Mussolini visited Hitler on the Eastern front. High political and military leaders on both sides were present; in place of Ciano, absent through sickness, Anfuso (Chief of Cabinet) went to the conference. Japan's entry into the war in December 1941 was followed on December 11 by Italy, jointly with Germany, declaring war upon the United States. Hitler announced an agreement with Italy and Japan by which the three Axis countries would make common war upon the United States and Britain (see text, p. 2338). In the middle of the following January

WHEN HITLER SHOWED OFF HIS PROWESS

At the end of August 1941, at a time when the German invasion of Russia had secured spectacular results, Mussolini visited Hitler on the Eastern Front and was shown over the battle lines. Hitler (third from right) walks in front with Field-Marshal von Kluge; then, an appropriate number of paces in the rear, Mussolini (nearest camera) struts along with Field-Marshal Keitel

Photo, Associated Press



Berlin stated that a military convention between the three Axis countries had been signed. This evidently involved a tighter hold by Germany upon Italian industry, labour and fighting services.

From January 27 until February 4, 1942, Goering was in Italy, where he inspected the Luftwaffe's air bases in Sicily and had talks with Mussolini, King Victor Emmanuel and Crown Prince Umberto. Goering, over and above his military duties, was the head of an immense industrial organization working for the Axis production machine. It is likely that a demand was made for more Italian labour for the Reich.

Germany's hunt for raw materials in the countries she controlled—together with her search for more labour—was reflected in an economic agreement signed on March 13 by Count Ciano and Von Mackensen (German Ambassador) at Rome.

Economic Pact with Germany

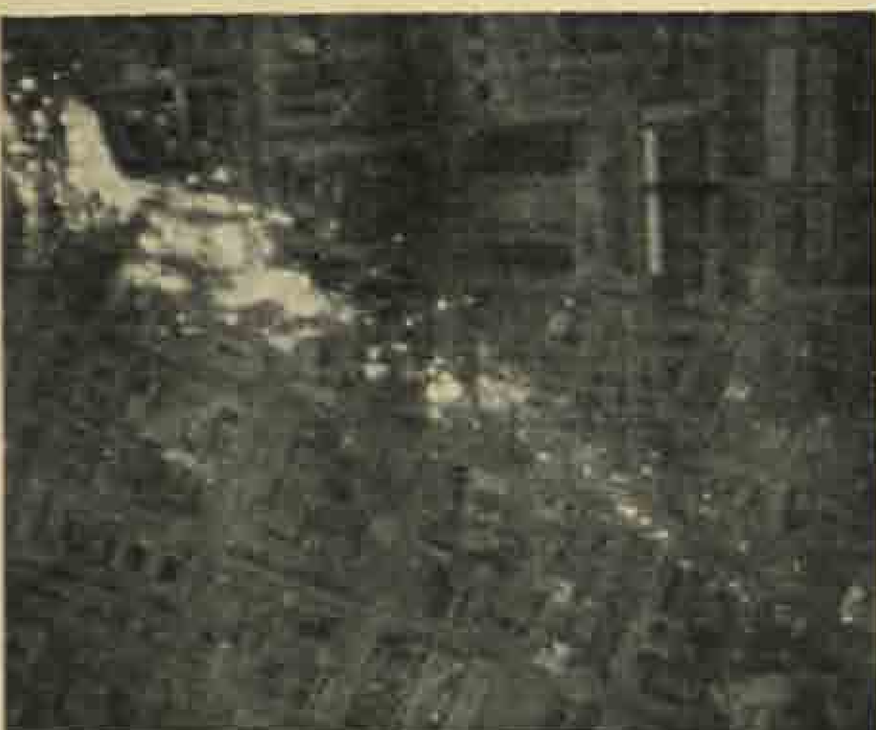
The reciprocal arrangement was working badly; German supplies to Italy during 1941 had been greater in amount by 10 to 15 per cent than corresponding deliveries in the reverse direction. Some 200,000 Italian workers had gone to Germany, and the number must be considerably increased. When compulsory civilian labour service had been introduced at the end of February, Gayda's Press organs had stated that Italy must supply new men and new materials for the gigantic German economy. It was emphasized that the Italian civilian labour force would have to work in close cooperation with Germany.



STUDY IN EXPRESSIONS AT SALZBURG

Hitler summoned Mussolini to a meeting at Salzburg, where discussions were held on April 29-30, 1942. It was rumoured that Hitler made big demands for more military and economic aid from his ally. Behind the customary mask of nonchalance Ribbentrop (right) can hardly conceal his self-satisfaction; Mussolini (left) and Ciano, who reads the document over his leader's shoulder, are only too plainly disgruntled and dismayed. *Photo, Associated Press*

Hitler and Mussolini, with Ribbentrop and Ciano, held a conference at Salzburg on April 29. Soon after, the Japanese military attaché in Berlin went to Rome to see Mussolini. Italians had been much disturbed by the revelations in Hitler's speech to the Reichstag on April 26, when he had stressed the sufferings of the German armies in Russia during the winter. When Mussolini returned to Rome, King Victor Emmanuel received him and Ciano, and later held a Council from which these two were absent. The King also conferred with several notables outside the Fascist Party, or at least lukewarm in their adherence to it. Another sequel to the Salzburg meeting was the arrival in Italy of a big batch of German police. Italy's blackshirt militia was being turned into a sort of internal police, under Gestapo guidance, to crush any possible resistance to the Fascist regime.



DAYLIGHT BOMBING OF MILAN, OCTOBER 24, 1942

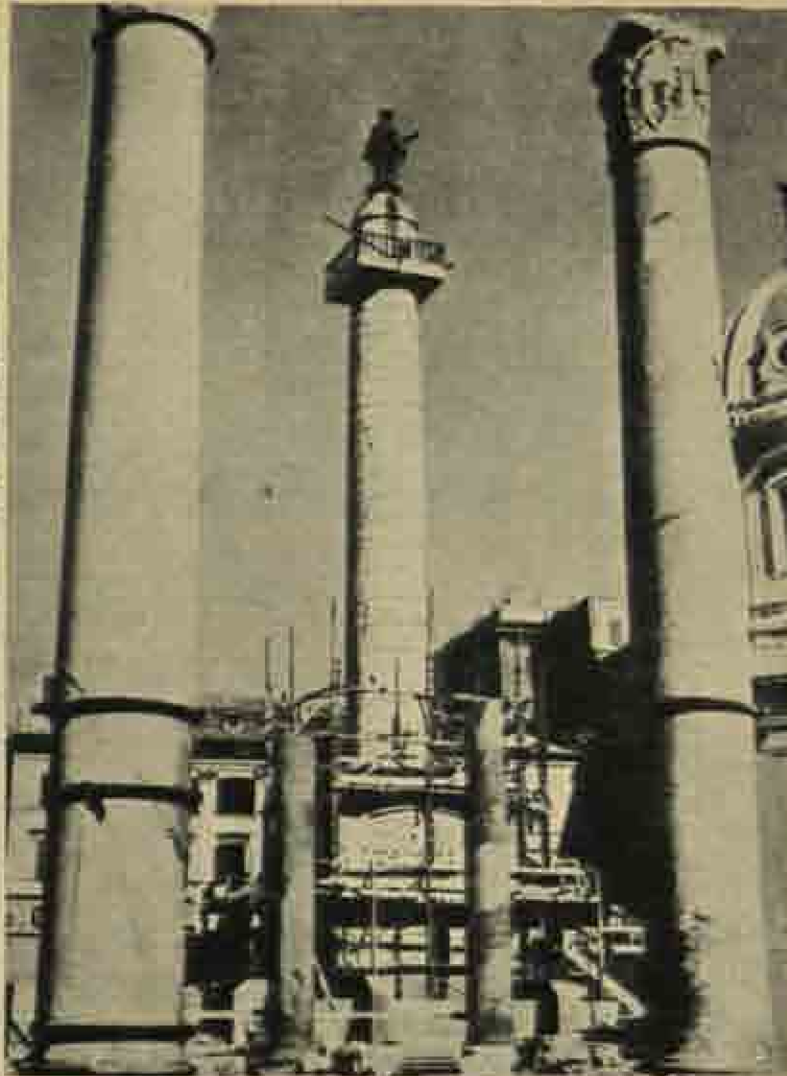
Home-based Lancasters raided Milan in daylight, and that same night other R.A.F. bombers made another attack on the great industrial city of northern Italy. Above, a stick of incendiaries goes down in daylight between Viale Ischia and Viale Monte Nero. Between October 22 and December 11, 1942, Milan, Genoa and Turin received 2,750 tons of bombs in 15 R.A.F. attacks.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

A strange twist of Italian propaganda was seen in March, when the campaign was renewed for the cession to Italy of Nice, Corsica and Tunisia. This agitation had been set going at the end of 1938, when there were bogus "spontaneous demonstrations" by students and others (see illus., p. 574). Then it was dropped. This time again it did not last long, for Hitler was still hopeful of fuller French collaboration and probably gave the order that the Italian

'Corsica, Nice, Tunis!'







ROME SHIELDS ITS ANCIENT MONUMENTS

Though it was the centre of a vital network of railways along which passed a steady stream of military traffic, Rome in the period under review was still free from bombing attacks. Many of its ancient treasures had been taken away or carefully shielded from damage. 1, Statue of Marcus Aurelius ready for removal from the Campidoglio; 2, Scaffolding for a wall around Trajan's Column. 3, How the Column of Marcus Aurelius, in the Piazza Colonna, was bricked up. 4, Air raid shelter at foot of Capitoline hill.

3

Photos, Associated Press





GERMAN NET DRAWN CLOSER AROUND ITALY

Top, at an Italian airfield, German officers watch bombers of the Luftwaffe about to land; a twin-engined Nazi machine is in the background. Italy had long agitated for possession of Corsica, but when on November 11, 1942, her troops entered the island (in lower photograph they are seen in Bastia fixing telephone lines) it was by leave of her ally, then hard-pressed for occupation troops. Mr. Churchill aptly termed it a 'flying visit,' as indeed it was to prove

Photos, Wide World Photos; Associated Press



demands were to be stopped. But on May 26 it was announced that the King and Crown Prince of Italy were reviewing 300,000 Italian troops on the French Alpine border, near Piedmont, an empty piece of bombast.

During the harvest there were peasant risings in Apulia. The municipal buildings were attacked by men armed with scythes and spades, and police reinforcements had to be rushed to the region to quell the disturbance. In Calabria also the farmers were reluctant to hand over their corn to the Government agents, and less than half the estimated yield was delivered. The presence of Himmler in Rome during October suggested that unrest was considerable, and that measures were being taken in the German fashion to put it down.

When Mussolini opened a party exhibition on the 20th anniversary of the Fascist march on Rome (October 28, 1942) he made no speech, merely declaring that Italy would see the war through. King Victor marked the occasion by an amnesty to some 42,000 political prisoners. The clue to this act of clemency was perhaps the prevalent unrest. Mr. Cordell Hull on November 30 said that reports constantly reached him indicating the possibility of serious discontent and explosive developments in Italy. A few weeks earlier Mr. Francis Biddle, the United States Attorney-General, had announced that the 600,000 unnaturalized Italians in the U.S.A. would not be treated as enemy aliens. Leaflets giving this news were distributed over Italy by R.A.F. bombers.

No Word From Mussolini

The Italian wireless announced on October 26 that an agreement with Germany had been signed providing for mutual aid for persons injured by British air raids, which were by now rising in a climax in preparation for the eastward thrust in Libya and the combined British-American invasion of North Africa. Genoa, Savona, Turin and Milan had been very heavily bombed from October 22. On October 23 Montgomery had opened his offensive against Rommel, and there began that 12-day battle which broke the Nazi strength in Libya. Retreating, the Germans abandoned their Italian allies in the southern sector, leaving them without transport. So it was that a few days later six Italian divisions were isolated. It was a grim omen for the 20th anniversary of the Fascist march on Rome. One Italian dream had come true, however, for Mussolini's troops were now in Nice and Corsica:



ITALIAN WAR POSTERS AT SYRACUSE, SICILY

That on the left draws a far-fetched analogy between the 'Sicilian Vespers,' March 31, 1282—when Sicilians rose in revolt against the Angevin domination—and Italy's war with the United Nations. The legend reads: 'As always, against all the enemies of the Fatherland.' The right-hand poster is typical anti-British propaganda. *Photo, British Official*

in time with Hitler's complete occupation of France on November 11 Italian forces had entered Nice, while Germans and Italians had landed in Corsica.

In a broadcast Ansaldo told Italy on November 25 that several million inhabitants might have to be evacuated. The entire civilian population of Milan, except those engaged in essential work, was ordered to leave. Under a heading, "Enough of War: Enough of Fascism," the Italian Socialists issued a manifesto calling upon the people to unite in a civil disobedience movement. Then it was, on December 2, that Mussolini broke his silence to reply to Mr. Churchill's speech of November 29. The Duce said he had the vague impression that the Italian people wanted to hear his voice again.

He gave a "statistical summary" of 30 months of war, but the facts were clear enough for Italians despite his wild and extravagant distortions. "Churchill calls me a hyena," he said. "I rate myself a much greater gentleman than this man who reeks with alcohol and tobacco." He gave a belated explanation why Italy was fighting on Germany's side: "We always had to choose between going with one side if we wanted to be safe on our maritime frontiers or to go over to the other if we wanted to feel safe on our Alpine frontiers."

In his broadcast of November 29 Mr. Churchill had said that the Italians had lost their empire, and over 100 Italian generals and nearly 300,000 of their soldiers were in Allied hands. What had they to show for this sacrifice! "A brief promenade, by German permission, along the Riviera; a flying visit to Corsica; a bloody struggle with the heroic patriots of Yugoslavia; a deed of undying shame in Greece; the ruins of Genoa, Turin, Milan." And Mr. Churchill added that all this was only a foretaste of what Italy must endure unless the Italian people turned against their Fascist leaders.





CROATIAN PUPPET

On May 15, 1941, Croatia was proclaimed a kingdom; three days later Prince Aimone of Savoy, Duke of Spoleto, was proclaimed King of Croatia under the style King Tomislav. Left, the scene in the Quirinal, Rome: King Victor Emmanuel is standing in front of the throne. Above, Mussolini signing the document creating the new kingdom. Tomislav never set up his throne in Croatia, and in August 1942 he assumed the title of Duke of Aosta, left vacant by the death of the former Duke in March, 1942 while a prisoner of war in British hands.

Photos, Keystone; Fox

Chapter 235

FINLAND AS AN AXIS SATELLITE

This Chapter deals with the eighteen months that elapsed between Finland's entry into war at the side of Germany in June 1941 and the close of 1942. It tells of the misfortunes and hardships of a misled people in the grip of the Nazi war machine, and of unavailing attempts made to break the bonds which they and their leaders had fastened

HITLER, in his proclamation of June 22, 1941, said that "united with their Finnish comrades, the soldiers who won the victory at Narvik are manning the shores of the Arctic Ocean. German divisions, commanded by the conqueror of Norway, together with the champions of Finnish liberty, commanded by their Marshal, are protecting Finnish territory." So, after 16 months of peace, Finland was again at war with Russia. The treaty which ended the war of 1939–40 had been signed on March 13, 1940 (see Chapter 74), and by it Finland had relinquished territory which she hoped now to regain. Mannerheim and his political friends, carried away by optimism, saw in prospect the speedy fall of the Bolshevist regime under Germany's hammer blows. But the Marshal soon found that the Soviet was not going to collapse, and that he had sold his country to the Nazis for no tangible reward.

It was not until June 25 that Parliament ratified the entry into Germany's campaign against Russia. Britain had made it clear that she stood with Russia, and America was going to give fullest aid to Britain. A Soviet broadcast on the 26th pointed out that it was obviously not against Finland that Russia had needed to take precautions when she opened the campaign of 1939–40, but that the presence in Europe of an aggressor [Germany] had compelled the Soviet to secure strategic positions. The Finnish people were merely the innocent victims of the German aggressor, in 1940, as now.

Sweden gave permission for a German division to cross the country from Norway to Finland—the objective being the Soviet Arctic port of Murmansk. Mannerheim issued an Order of the Day (June 28) calling upon the Finnish army to follow him in "a holy war against our national enemy." Next day Finnish and German troops launched an offensive along the entire front from the Barents Sea to the Gulf of Finland. Broadcasting on July 2, 1941, M. Vuori, President of the Trade Union Council, said that Finland's present war was made not in Finland but in Moscow. Next day M. Tanner, entering the Government as Minister of Trade and Industry, said: "The workers of Finland will least of all have cause to mourn if the Soviet regime breaks. . . . In this matter our interests run common with those of Germany."

On July 28 the Finnish Foreign Minister asked the British Minister at Helsinki for a severance of diplomatic relations. Three days later M. Gripenberg, Finnish Minister in London, was seen by Mr. Eden and formally notified of the rupture. On July 30 British naval aircraft had bombed the Finnish port of Petsamo, in the Arctic, and in a protest the Finnish Government had alleged that the British decision to blockade Petsamo had been taken on June 14, before the outbreak of war with Russia.

Under the massive blows of Hitler's great armies all along the front Russia was soon retreating. Mannerheim had sworn to fight on until Karelia had been liberated—not merely those parts of Karelia ceded to Russia in March 1940, but also Eastern Karelia, which had been in Russian hands since 1920.

The main Finnish advance was on the Karelian Isthmus, and by the end of September the German-Finnish force had reached the canal connecting Lakes Ladoga and Onega, and were in a position to threaten Leningrad from that quarter, thus affording substantial help to Von Leeb's armies in the south. Viipuri was reoccupied on August 30, and the Isthmus was once more in Finnish hands. But it seemed that when the Finns reached their former boundaries the Russian resistance immediately became stronger.

Territory Regained

Other of Mannerheim's troops reached the railway to Murmansk, but only small units were involved and the traffic on this most important artery—as on the Stalin Canal—hardly ceased throughout these months. In the far north the attack on Murmansk itself by troops under Colonel-General Dietl was inconclusive. Russia lost the islands in the Gulf of Finland, and Hango was evacuated on December 1. By October, when



GERMAN COMMANDER ON THE MURMANSK FRONT

At the end of September 1941 a German force under Colonel-General Dietl attacked the Russian Arctic port of Murmansk. Dietl, who had taken Narvik during the campaign in Norway, had under him Austrian Alpine troops chosen for their experience of wintry conditions. Here he is talking to personnel of the Luftwaffe, who were being used as infantry. Dietl made little progress, and Murmansk was not seriously menaced.

Photo, Keystone

Finland's lost territories had been reconquered, there was a body of opinion in favour of a halt, and some of the Social Democrat Party urged this course.

Allies' Mediation Efforts

Other Finnish leaders, flushed with success, wished to push on and secure still more ground. At this stage both America and Britain tried unsuccessfully to disentangle Finland from the Nazi net. The U.S. State Department in the middle of August had informed the Finnish Minister in Washington that the Soviet Government was willing to talk about peace, and that the U.S.S.R. would even surrender territory.

About a month later Britain (with whom as yet Finland was not at war) gave a blunt warning that if Finland persisted she would become an enemy of Great Britain; Finland replied that what she called her defensive war must continue (October 7). Washington, four days earlier, had asked Finland whether she intended to halt at her former frontiers or to advance farther into Russia. At the beginning of October the matter was brought to a head by a request to Britain from the Soviet for a declaration of war on Finland, Rumania and Hungary. Finland, in a reply to Washington on November 11, said she would only cease hostilities when the danger that threatened her existence had been staved off. On November 25, fifth anniversary of the Anti-Comintern Pact, M. Witting signed this Pact on behalf of Finland at Berlin. Three days later came a British declaration of war (see page 2338).

Though the military party in Finland had got its way, the people generally were tired of the war. They were in a dilemma—hostile to and distrustful of Russia, but strongly averse to a state of affairs which had brought them into war with Britain and Norway and had worsened their relations with America. Food had become short, and supplies promised from Germany had not been delivered. The Minister of Supply on January 14, 1942, spoke of transport difficulties in bad weather, and of crop deficiencies, and asked the people to exercise patience. Soon after, farmers were told to give up half their seed corn for milling into flour for bread.

All Finland looked with apprehension to the coming months, when Germany would resume her offensive. It was bound to be costly in lives and would further deplete the supply of labour badly needed for agriculture. Some 40 per cent of land that ought to have been ploughed in the previous autumn had been left for want of men and machinery. There was no possibility of overtaking these arrears. The clothes ration was cut by one-third in April. Food issues were just enough for subsistence.

There was a visit by Hitler on June 4. He came ostensibly to greet Mannerheim on the Marshal's 75th birthday. Field-Marshal Keitel accompanied him, and there was a six-hour conference. A Finnish defection would expose the German left flank and could not be tolerated. More pressure must be brought to bear on the Finnish generals, and blandishments and promises offered to Mannerheim, to whom Hitler presented the Grand Cross of the Eagle Order.

Finland's attitude was puzzling to British and American observers; alongside an expressed desire to be out of the war was a determination not to make peace. In a speech on March 13, 1942 (anniversary of the settlement with Russia in 1940), the Minister of Industry



HITLER'S VISIT TO FIELD-MARSHAL MANNERHEIM

Hitler made the journey ostensibly to congratulate Mannerheim upon the Marshal's 75th birthday. But at this period (June 4, 1942) there were other pressing questions to be dealt with, for Finland was short of food and was becoming war-weary. Top, left to right, Field-Marshal Keitel; Hitler; Mannerheim; President Risto Ryti. Below, a visit to Hitler at Koenigsberg by the Finnish General Harald Oqvist (third from right) in September 1941. Rumour said that Oqvist wished to withdraw Finland from the conflict. On the extreme left, Keitel; Ribbentrop is seen in his customary pose second from right. *Photos, "New York Times" Photos; Keystone*



and Commerce had said that Finland could not make peace with Russia, though he hoped her part in the war would soon come to an end. On the one hand, newspapers with Fascist leanings clamoured for a closer approach to the Axis, and for the application of Nazi doctrines. But the Social-Democrat press continued with some freedom to oppose the continuance of the war now that Finland had won back her former lands.

Just before Hitler's visit to Finland it was said that Mannerheim had been ready to withdraw from the war. President Ryti, so it was alleged, had told Hitler that Finland would be unable to continue the war unless Germany provided adequate supplies of food for the army and people. Concurrently feelers were put out in Washington. In fact, during the ensuing months it seemed that Finland wished to be saved from herself—almost in spite of herself. She said she wished to be guaranteed against the peril of Bolshevist domination following an Allied defeat of Germany. Somewhat pathetically she looked to the United States. Mr. Cordell Hull made a statement on reasons which had caused the U.S.A. to declare war on Bulgaria, Hungary and Rumania (June 3), and went on to describe Hitler's visits to Mannerheim as an attempt to compromise Finland still further in the eyes of the anti-Axis world and to induce her to make further contributions to Axis military aims.

Peace Feelers in Washington



PRESIDENT RISTO RYTI VISITS WOUNDED SOLDIERS

The Finnish President (second from left) was elected on December 19, 1940, in succession to Kyosti Kallio (who retired in November 1940 on account of ill-health and died suddenly on the day that Risto Ryti was elected). The new President had been Premier in a Government he formed on the outbreak of the earlier war with Russia, in 1939; he had held the post till then of Governor of the Bank of Finland.
Photo, Sport & General

Because of Finnish restrictions imposed on American Consular officials the U.S. Government on July 16 requested Finland to close all her consulates in the U.S.A. Later in July Helsinki radio in a transmission beamed to the U.S.A. hinted that if Washington could give more exact information about plans for the protection of small democracies from a Bolshevist-dictated peace the Finns "would gain greater confidence." In September the matter was carried a step farther: the Finnish Legation in Washington asserted that Finland wanted to cease fighting as soon as the threat to her existence had been averted, and guarantees obtained for her lasting security. A month later, speaking in Stockholm, the Finnish Minister for Social Affairs said Finland was not fighting for any European new order; the Finnish people were democratic, and no other regime would suit them.

'Guarantees for Security'

Finland, with whom payment of the old war debt to the United States had been a matter of honour, announced on December 14, 1942, that she would not meet her obligations for December. The American Minister left Helsinki during the month. The Finnish Premier, Mr. Risto Ryti, made a statement on January 3, 1943, which may well serve to close this account of steadily worsening relations. He said that Finland would never declare war upon the U.S.A., and he hoped that nothing would cause the U.S.A. to declare war on Finland, "who had already sufficient enemies."



FINLAND AGAIN SUFFERS AERIAL BOMBING

The policy of its leaders in allying themselves with Germany brought much-tried Finland once more under the ordeal of aerial bombardment. Helsinki was raided by Russian aircraft on July 5, 1941, when 15 persons were killed and many of its houses were set on fire (above). On the 30th, aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm, acting with Russian bombers, attacked the harbours of Petsamo and Kirkenes.
Photo, Sport & General





ON KARELIAN FRONT

Certain sections of the Finns had long coveted territory in Russian Karelia (between Lake Ladoga and the White Sea) and the involvement of the Soviet with Germany gave an opportunity for a thrust in this direction. Finnish tanks are seen below entering Petrozavodsk, Eastern Karelia, after its capture in October 1941. Centre, Russian scouts in winter camouflage on another sector of this front. Top, a German bomber on an improvised airfield—in the foreground are reindeer which in the summer are brought down from northern Finland.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Keystone; Associated Press



Historic Documents. CCLI–CCLV

WAR DECLARED UPON AXIS SATELLITES

First we give the text of Britain's ultimatums of November 28, 1941, to the Governments of Finland, Hungary and Rumania. Next there follows the statement of the Finnish Premier to his Diet next day, in which he declared Finland's policy. Although Hungary and Bulgaria had declared war upon the United States on December 13, 1941, it was not until June 3 of the following year that the United States Congress passed the Resolution printed below, opening hostilities upon those two countries and Rumania. Then we give (1) Hitler's statement to the Reichstag telling of the declaration of war upon the United States and the agreement with Italy and Japan to make common war on the United States and Britain; and (2) Mussolini's parallel announcement in Rome.

BRITAIN'S ULTIMATUMS TO THE GOVERNMENTS OF FINLAND, HUNGARY AND RUMANIA, NOVEMBER 28, 1941.

In the Note to Finland, His Majesty's Government recalled their warning of September 22—that Finland would find herself in a state of war with Great Britain unless she stopped in her aggression against the Soviet Union, but that if she stopped Britain would try to improve relations. The Note went on:

On September 22, 1941, the Norwegian Government delivered to the Finnish Government on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom a message to the effect that if the Finnish Government persisted in invading purely Russian territory a situation would arise in which Great Britain would be forced to treat Finland as an open enemy not only while the war lasts but also when peace comes to be made; but that if Finland should terminate her war against Russia and evacuate all territories beyond her frontiers of 1939 His Majesty's Government would be ready to study proposals for the improvement of relations between Great Britain and Finland.

The Finnish Government's reply showed no disposition to respond to this overture, nor have they ceased to pursue aggressive military operations on territory of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, the ally of Great Britain, in the closest collaboration with Germany.

The Finnish Government have sought to contend that their war against Soviet Russia does not involve participation in the general European war. This contention His Majesty's Government find it impossible to accept.

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom in these circumstances find it necessary to inform the Finnish Government that unless by December 5 the Finnish Government cease military operations and in practice withdraw from all active participation in hostilities, His Majesty's Government will have no choice but to declare the existence of a state of war between the two countries.

[The British Notes to Hungary and Rumania, after stating that the two Governments "had for many months been pursuing aggressive military operations on territory of the U.S.S.R., the ally of Great Britain, in the closest collaboration with Germany, thus participating in the general European war and making a substantial contribution to the German war effort," went on to convey a warning in identical terms to that in the Note to Finland. It was announced in London on December 6, 1941, that as from 1 a.m. on December 7 Britain would consider herself at war with Finland, Hungary and Rumania owing to the refusal of these countries to cease hostilities against the U.S.S.R. The Finnish reply was stated to be unsatisfactory, making it clear that the Finnish Government had no intention of complying with Britain's demands. No reply was received from Hungary or Rumania.]

STATEMENT BY THE FINNISH PREMIER, M. RANGELL, AT A SECRET SESSION OF THE DIET, NOVEMBER 29, 1941.

"The territories we have occupied beyond the frontier and from which the enemy threatened us must remain in Finnish occupation, and strategic reasons must determine how much further this occupation is to stretch." He went on to say that the population of Eastern Karelia formed part of the Finnish people, and the guarantees which Finland needed applied fully to the position of the Eastern Karelians.

Finland's relations with Germany were based "on common military interests, fraternity, loyal friendship and reciprocal respect," while Britain was "helping Russia, Finland's enemy, in every possible way" and "threatens war with us." The Government's policy as thus expressed was approved by the leaders of all Finnish parties except the Swedish party, and a vote of confidence was unanimously passed.

JOINT RESOLUTION OF THE UNITED STATES CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, JUNE 3, 1942.

Whereas the Government of Bulgaria has formally declared war against the Government and people of the United States of America, therefore be it Resolved:

That the state of war between the United States and the Government of Bulgaria, which has thus been thrust upon the United States, is hereby formally declared; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Government of Bulgaria; and, to bring the conflict to a successful termination, all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States."

[Joint Resolutions in identical terms were passed by Congress, declaring war upon Hungary and Rumania.]

GERMAN-ITALIAN-JAPANESE MILITARY ALLIANCE. HITLER'S STATEMENT TO THE REICHSTAG, DECEMBER 11, 1941.

Hitler announced that Germany had declared war on the United States, and had concluded an agreement with Italy and Japan by which they would make common war on the United States and Britain, as follows:

In their unshakable determination not to lay down arms until the common war against the United States of America and Britain has been brought to a successful conclusion, the German Government, the Italian Government, and the Japanese Government have agreed upon the following provisions:

Article I. Germany, Italy and Japan jointly and with every means at their disposal shall proceed with the war forced upon them by the United States of America and Britain until victory is achieved.

Article II. Germany, Italy and Japan undertake not to conclude an armistice or peace with the United States of America or Britain except in complete mutual agreement.

Article III. After victory has been achieved, Germany, Italy and Japan will continue in closest cooperation with a view to establishing a new and just order along the lines of the Tripartite Agreement concluded by them on September 27, 1940.

Article IV. The present agreement will come into force with its signature, and will remain valid as long as the Tripartite Pact of September 27, 1940. The high contracting parties will in good time before the expiry of this term of validity enter into consultation with each other as to the future development of their cooperation, as provided under Article III of the present agreement.

MUSSOLINI'S ANNOUNCEMENT OF ITALY'S DECLARATION OF WAR ON THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER 11, 1941.

This is another day of solemn decisions in the history of Italy and of memorable events destined to open a new era in the history of the continents. The powers of the "steel pact," Fascist Italy and National Socialist Germany, which are ever more closely united, today take their stand with heroic Japan against the United States of America. The Tripartite Pact now becomes a military alliance, which rallies around its banner 250,000,000 men, who are resolved to win. . . .

Today the Tripartite Pact, in the pride and fullness of its material and moral resources, is a mighty instrument of war. It is the sure guarantee of victory. Tomorrow it will be the instrument and organiser of a just peace between peoples. Italians, be proud of this great hour. We shall win.

HUNGARY, RUMANIA AND BULGARIA JULY 1941 TO DECEMBER 1942

For an account of earlier events in the Balkan Peninsula see Chapter 156, where the story of Axis intrigues is told up to the overrunning of Greece and Yugoslavia in April 1941; the campaigns in those two countries are described in Chapters 157–158. In the present pages the history of the three Axis satellites is continued to the end of 1942

It is convenient to begin this review with the story of events in Hungary, a country which occupied a favoured place among the Axis satellites. As Regent it had Admiral Nicholas Horthy, who, while favouring the Nazi type of administration, had tried to preserve much of Hungary's traditional system nevertheless. On the death of Count Teleki (who shot himself on April 3, 1941, when faced with the German demand for the dishonouring of the pact with Yugoslavia) Laszlo Bardossy had taken over the premiership. As Foreign Minister he had visited Hitler on March 21 (see illus., p. 1611). The Regent, Admiral Horthy, on April 10 excused the betrayal of Yugoslavia by charges that Yugoslavs had made a series of air attacks on Hungary and had made armed raids.

Hungary severed relations with Russia on June 24, and declared war ("owing to Soviet air raids on Hungarian territory") three days later. Her armed forces crossed into Russian territory and began at once to suffer heavy losses. By the end of August Germany was demanding more divisions for the East, and the Hungarian Chief of Staff resigned as a protest. The Government pleaded the needs of the harvest, but had to give way. Admiral Horthy was summoned to Hitler's headquarters on September 11 and was told that the entire Hungarian army must be mobilized. Added to the call for troops was the German demand for supplies; later Italy joined in with her own requests, and in November the Italian Minister of Commerce was in Budapest negotiating for corn and coal. It was suggested that Italian miners should be sent to Hungarian mines to increase the output.

Britain delivered an ultimatum, by the medium of the American Ambassador, asking Hungary to stop all hostilities by midnight of December 5, 1941, failing which there would be a state of war between Britain and Hungary. Britain's request was refused. Eight days later Hungary declared war upon the United States, who, however, did not declare war on Hungary until June 3, 1942. Hungarian troops had been ruthlessly sacrificed on the Eastern front, being thrust forward into advanced positions to save the Germans; 20,000 were said to be missing.



HITLER GREETS HUNGARY'S PREMIER

Nicholas de Kallay, here seen on a visit to Hitler, June 6, 1942, formed a Cabinet in March upon the resignation of Laszlo Bardossy owing to ill-health. Kallay had served as Minister of Agriculture in the Goemboes Cabinet of 1932–35.

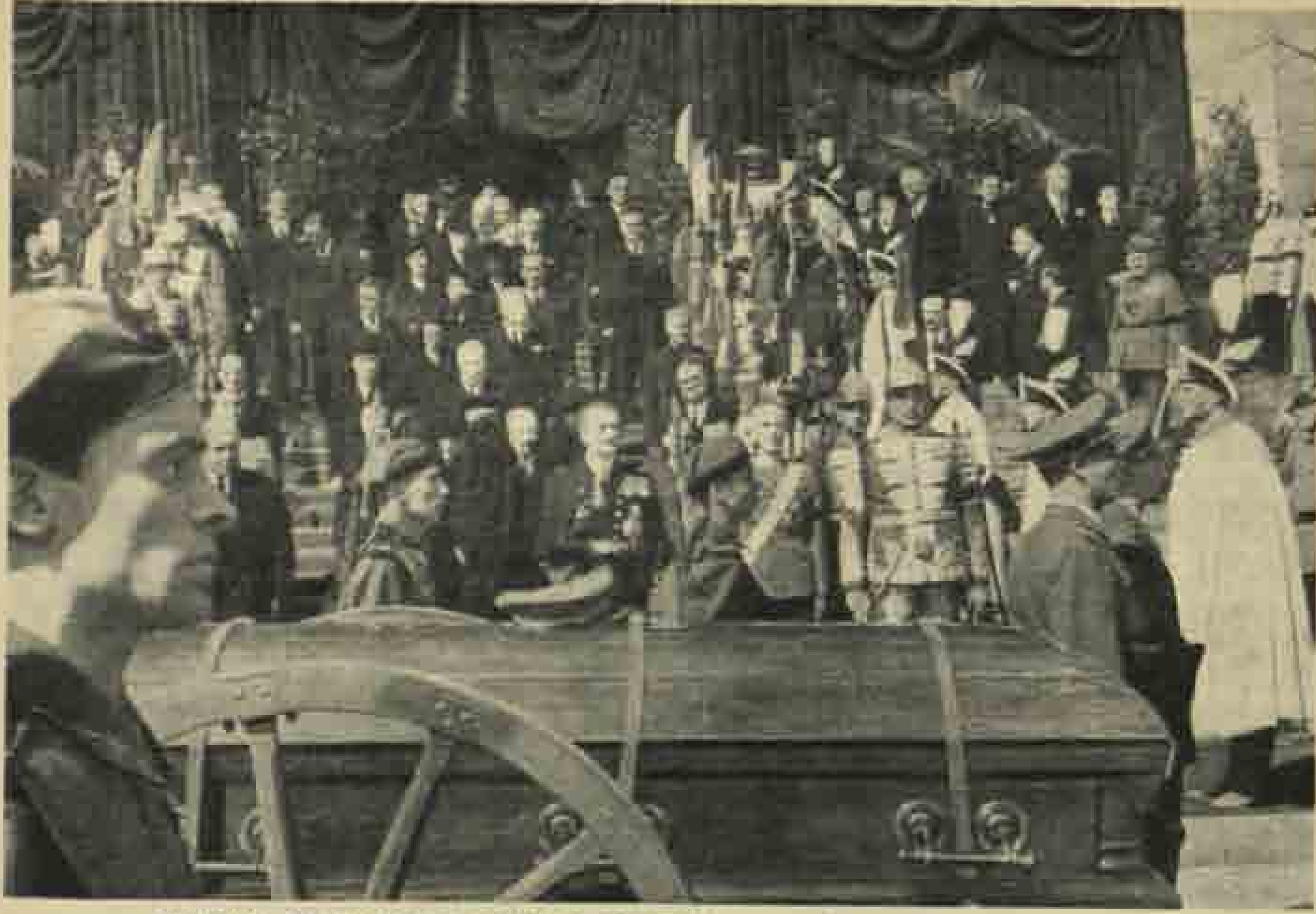
Photo, Associated Press

Hungary had received large slices of Yugoslav territory, including the fertile lands of the Baranya to the W. of the Danube; and also the Bachka, between the Danube and the Tisza (see map, p. 1876). She had benefited by the Vienna Award of August 1940, engineered by Germany and Italy, which gave her two-thirds of Rumanian Transylvania—land taken from Hungary by the Treaty of Trianon in 1920 (see map, p. 1288). Still she was not satisfied, and hoped to secure territory in the Rumanian and Serbian Banat. Largely in the expectation of such rewards she clung to the Axis system, but her cupidity gave Hitler a lever in extorting greater efforts in the industrial and military spheres. By promises to Rumania on the one hand or Hungary on the other he managed to spur on each to bigger exertions.

Ribbentrop at Budapest in January 1942 was apparently unsuccessful in persuading Bardossy to send more troops to Russia. First Ciano and then Keitel next badgered the Regent: it was said that large formations were asked for the Eastern front and for the policing of Yugoslavia. Promised rewards were the "leadership in Central Europe," and a free port for Hungary at Fiume.

Horthy, who was then 73 years of age, talked of retiring from the post of Regent in February; his son Stephan was appointed deputy Regent. Bardossy's Cabinet resigned in March, and a new Government was formed by Nicholas de Kallay, who took also the portfolio of Foreign Minister. New demands were being made by Hitler for the pending spring offensive. Moreover, 20,000 minority Germans were sent from Hungary to Germany for incorporation into the S.S., while 10,000 more went from Rumania.

There was a provocative speech on the Transylvania question by the Rumanian Foreign Minister on March 19, 1942. In reply Kallay, speaking at Kolozsvar in June, declared that North Transylvania would remain Hungarian for ever. Owing to disturbances in



FUNERAL OF ILL-FATED STEPHAN HORTHY

Son of the Regent of Hungary, Admiral Nicholas Horthy, and appointed deputy Regent only a few months earlier, Stephan Horthy was officially stated to have been killed in action on the Eastern front on August 20, 1942. Here is the funeral cortège outside the Parliament House, Budapest, with the Regent, his wife and the widow of Stephan leading the mourners.

Photo, Associated Press

Rumanian Transylvania (caused by the requisitioning of food by the Rumanian authorities from peasants of Hungarian origin), a mixed German-Italian commission investigated the matter; at the end of October the commission went to Bucharest for consultations. There were complaints of Rumanian brutality towards Hungarians, and the dispute grew bitter; owing to its German involvements the Hungarian army could do nothing against Rumania.

Horthy's Double Bereavement

Stephan Horthy was killed in action on the Eastern front, so said a German announcement of August 20; Ciano, Ribbentrop and Keitel attended the funeral at Budapest. On September 2 Horthy received another blow, for his son-in-law, Count Karolyi, was killed in a flying accident: while flying over the Danube with an N.C.O. instructor his aircraft plunged into the river and was not seen again.

Applying increasing pressure by political, military and economic means, Germany gained a greater measure of control as time went on. Anti-Jewish laws were promulgated by the Hungarian Government in line with those in the Reich; in August 1942 Jews were barred from taking part in commerce and industry; early in September there took place the "immediate and complete sequestration" of all property belonging to them. In December all Jews were conscripted for labour service at the front; those of the 1900–18 classes had already been called up. This anti-Jewish legislation was not to the liking of all Hungarians, and was dictated by Germany.

Grain was not coming in at the expected rate, and in September 1942, 65 commissioners had been appointed with wide powers to supervise the collection from peasants and farmers. The 250,000 Hungarian agricultural workers in Germany were recalled at the end of the year.

Coinciding with a visit by Von Papen, on his way from Turkey to Berlin, there were Cabinet changes in September and October. General Bartha, Hungarian Minister of Defence, was replaced by Colonel-General Nagy; Stephan Losonczy, Minister of Supply, was relieved of his post and succeeded by Ludwig Szasz. At the end of October 1942 Kallay visited Rome and saw Mussolini.

Hungarian troops garrisoning Serbia and Croatia were continually harassed by partisans. After an attempt by Croat guerillas to wreck the Budapest–Trieste–Rome express early in November the frontier between Hungary and Croatia was closed for some time. Early in January 1943 the Hungarian Government was said to be recalling its troops owing to internal unrest: 1,300 persons had been arrested on charges of sedition in Serbia and Croatia. The Berlin radio announced that the trials of 667 alleged Communists had begun in Budapest and in Transylvanian towns on the charge of fomenting a revolution. Hungary sent a Note to Germany and Italy protesting against Rumanian-inspired sabotage in Transylvania.

Rumania, as is clear from the above narrative of Hungarian events, was taking every opportunity of showing her resentment against the loss of most of Transylvania. Another grievance was the favouring of Hungary by allowing most of her army to remain near home

in the occupied territories, while Rumanians were sent in much greater numbers to die in Russia. As related in Chapter 156, Rumania had signed the Tripartite Axis Pact in November 1940. In the following January there had taken place the revolt of the Iron Guard and the flight of its leader, Horia Sima, to Germany; Hitler seemed to have kept him in reserve as an alternative to Antonescu, should the latter not prove compliant. Britain had recalled her Minister in February, since it was clear that Rumania was conniving at the building up of a German expeditionary force in the country. On April 6, 1941, the invasion of Yugoslavia began (*see* Chapters 157–158); in 12 days the subjugation of Yugoslavia and Greece was complete.

The Iron Guard again became active in the middle of April, encouraged by the Germans, who threatened to restore them unless Antonescu agreed to complete Nazi control of communications and satisfied other demands. Food was becoming scarce. Rationing for meat, sugar, flour and bread was introduced in the middle of May. Thirty per cent of the wheat stocks was reserved for the army, and large quantities were requisitioned for dispatch to Germany. When widespread complaints were heard the Government appealed to the people to "endure the sacrifices made for our comrades of the future."

Things were now warming up for Germany's attack on Russia. At the beginning of June 1941, the roads from Bucharest to the Soviet frontier were filled with military transport; three fresh German army corps arrived to join others on the Bessarabian frontier. On June 16 Horia Sima and ringleaders of the Iron Guard were sentenced to hard labour for life, by a Rumanian court, but as all were out of the country this was an empty gesture. Six days later Antonescu issued an Order of the Day to the Rumanian Army stating that the hour had arrived to "liberate their brothers from the yoke of Bolshevism." Rumania, he went on, was undertaking a holy war. He promised to wipe out the slur from the history books of the Rumanian people.

Soon Rumanian hospitals were packed with wounded from the Russian front—in the first 17 days Rumanian casualties were 80,000. The food situation was deplorable; the cost of living rose enormously. On the other hand, Bessarabia and Bukovina had been regained, and Dr. Maniu's Peasant Party urged Antonescu now to end hostilities. Maniu's supporters were many, and there were some even among the Rumanian army at the Russian front. Antonescu ordered the arrest of a number of former Deputies and Ministers.

Maniu's Peasant Party

General Ciuperca, Commander of the Rumanian Eastern Army, was said to have been shot for refusing to order his troops across the Dniester after Bessarabia had been reoccupied. From a Turkish source it was reported in October that 12 Rumanian generals had been shot for signing a memorandum against further military action against Russia. Official figures for casualties gave 20,000 killed, 76,000 wounded and 15,000 missing—certainly not an over-estimate. By a decree of Oct. 18 Antonescu incorporated

HORIA SIMA, MARSHAL ANTONESCU AND KING MICHAEL

This photograph was taken in 1940 after Antonescu had become Conducator and Horia Sima had been appointed Deputy Premier. Left to right, Fabricius, German Minister in Bucharest; Horia Sima, who after the Iron Guards' revolt of January 1941 fled to Germany; Marshal Antonescu; King Michael; General Hansen, commanding German troops in Rumania. In June 1941 Horia Sima and ringleaders of the Iron Guard were sentenced to hard labour for life; by this time all were out of the country.

Photo, Keystone



Odessa and a region beyond the Dniester into Rumania as "Transdniestria."

A plebiscite was held in November 1941 for or against collaboration with the Axis: only a few score voted against Antonescu's policy. (At a previous plebiscite, in March, 2,887,758 had voted for Antonescu and only about 2,000 against him.) On December 7 Antonescu had to tell his people of the British declaration of war.

In the new year Germany began marshalling Rumanians for the spring offensive. Three divisions sent to Russia had been almost wiped out and others had suffered very heavily. More classes were called to the colours in January 1942, and it was said that Antonescu had agreed to furnish in all 16 divisions. The chief and vice-chief of the Rumanian army resigned in the face of these German demands. As in Hungary, the agricultural situation became grave, and in March every possible worker was mobilized. Despite these difficulties Germany did not abate her calls for more food supplies, and the Minister of Agriculture resigned because of inability to deliver the full quota of grain to the Nazis. Antonescu ordered the return from Germany of all farm labourers (about 30,000) to help with the spring sowing. Everyone between 12 and 70 years of age was roped in for land work, and tractor ploughing was carried on night and day.

More Calls Upon Rumania

Fanned by discontent with the food situation and the heavy losses at the Russian front, Rumanian guerilla bands and partisans were finding many adherents. A band under Miniulescu derailed a German troop train near Craiova in April, securing much ammunition and equipment; shortly after, a school building near Bucharest used as troop quarters was raided, and still more equipment seized. Rumanian patriot leaders had secret consultations with the Yugoslav leader Mihailovich.

In an attempt to divert attention from the unhappy internal situation Antonescu resumed his bellicose demands for the lost territory in Transylvania. At a military parade in Bucharest on May 10, 1942, he declared that "friends and foes alike must understand that Rumanians will never rest till all the lands of their fathers have been recovered." About this time there was a joint proclamation of friendship by Rumania, Croatia and Slovakia; the three peoples were to stand together as a barrier against Hungarian encroachments. In June fighting broke out between Rumanian and Hungarian soldiers at Turda, near Cluj, in the disputed territory; the Hungarians had made a surprise attack. Evidently the Axis thought that this matter had now gone far enough, for the German and Italian Ministers in Bucharest asked Antonescu to make a public recognition of the Vienna Award as irrevocable, to undertake to postpone all other territorial claims, and to stop all attacks on Hungary. There was nothing for Antonescu but to comply, and on August 1, 1942, he publicly stated that Rumania would put forward no territorial claims until after the war.

Early in August there was a purge of army officers: 15 generals, 10 divisional generals and four brigadiers were placed on the retired list. There had been many desertions, and military police had made widespread sweeps of the larger towns. A pardon was promised to men who returned voluntarily to their units, but few did so. In September Antonescu appealed for a concentrated war effort: "I ask you," he said, "to understand how heavy is the burden resting on my shoulders, and not to ask me for that which in wartime cannot be realized." Anger was rising because of the slaughter of Rumanians at the Russian front while, as it was said, Hungary and Bulgaria remained spectators. The Nazis had to bolster up Antonescu by a radio announcement of a decree that he was the only law-creating authority in Rumania. The Rumania of today, said the announcement, had no Constitution, and accordingly the powers of the Court of Appeal as permanent guardian of the Constitution had become meaningless. The 1936 Constitution was but a reflection of the regime that had been overthrown. The present Government therefore had empowered Marshal Antonescu to create general constitutional laws. At the same time the law-creator was above the law.

Antonescu's Dilemma

In the autumn partisan activity flared up again under the leadership of Vlaicu. Contact was made with Mihailovich's forces in Yugoslavia. Armed bands attacked pro-German officials, destroyed crops and damaged installations useful to the Germans. There was special activity in Transylvania, and here the Rumanian authorities alleged they had discovered a Hungarian terrorist organization which furthered fifth column activity. A court-martial at Temesvar sentenced three men to death and inflicted heavy penalties on others. Vlaicu had a secret radio station from which he sent out appeals to Rumanians to prepare for the coming struggle against the Germans.

Renewed persecution of Jews led Dr. Maniu to protest against such measures as forced emigration to occupied Russia and the ban on Jews living in villages. Maniu again urged Antonescu to recall Rumanian troops from Russia, since, he said, the help given to the Germans would only inflame Russian hatred towards Rumania, who would have to pay dearly for it in the future. The

RUMANIAN TROOPS MARCH INTO ODESSA

The Black Sea port of Odessa was evacuated by Soviet forces on October 16, 1941. The brunt of the attack had been borne by the Rumanian 4th Army, with some aid from German units. Rumania's Deputy Premier made the announcement of this success and claimed the capture of much booty; the Soviet report stated that the evacuation had been made in the course of eight days in perfect order, and stigmatized the enemy claims as 'mere empty boasts.'

Photo, Sport & General



cost had been heavy enough already, for Rumania's losses during the summer had been at the rate of 1,000 per day, and 25,000 casualties had been suffered at Stalingrad alone.

The mendacious policy of King Boris of Bulgaria and his Premier, Bogdan Filoff, during the early months of 1941 is described in pages 1610-11. Filoff signed the Axis Pact on March 1; four days later Mr. George Rendel, British Minister to Sofia, told him that diplomatic relations with Britain were at an end. Mr. Rendel left for Istanbul on the 10th; while at the Pera Palace Hotel there, a bomb concealed in one of two suit cases surreptitiously added to the luggage of the Legation party in Sofia exploded, killing four persons—one the British Military Attaché's secretary. In a statement to the Press at Istanbul after the German invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece, Mr. Rendel summed up Bulgaria's duplicity, pointing out that it was the third time in 30 years that the Bulgarian people, without cause or provocation, had attacked their two neighbours. In spite of repeated assurances by Filoff, the latest on March 1, 1941, Bulgaria had now occupied Yugoslav Macedonia, Greek Western Thrace, Eastern Macedonia, and the districts of Castoria and Florina.

Nearly half a million German troops had been concentrated in Bulgaria for the invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece (see Chapters 157-158). An excuse was given by Filoff on April 9 that Yugoslav troops had attacked Bulgarian frontier posts the day before; more such charges were made after Bulgaria broke off relations with Yugoslavia on April 15. Later in the month Filoff telegraphed to Hitler his deepest thanks for the "liberation of Thrace and Macedonia" by the German army. But Bulgarians soon began to see the other side of the matter. The war revolutionized the internal economy of the country; in June rationing was extended to textiles and to leather goods. Germany demanded that large areas should be diverted from wheat to the growing of soya beans, a policy followed in other Balkan lands under her control. Owing to commandeering for German troops food became scarce. New banknotes were issued in large quantities, and the Germans paid for their purchases with these. Bulgarians had no faith in the new currency or in the German mark notes which circulated; they hoarded food and other commodities. Newspapers which referred to the food situation were suspended.

Bulgarian Turpitude

Bulgarians were bewildered by Germany's invasion of Russia on June 22, 1941. They openly manifested their sympathy with the Soviets by demonstrations against the Government and by a general hostility towards German troops and officials. Strong police measures had to be taken, and thousands were sent to labour camps and concentration camps. Much anger was aroused, too, by Italy's plans for annexing part of Macedonia. On the other hand, the Government was ruthlessly Bulgarizing the occupied regions of Thrace and Eastern Macedonia. In the British House of Commons Mr. Eden referred



LEADER OF RUMANIAN PEASANT PARTY

Iuliu Maniu was one of the few responsible leaders to urge moderation. Repeatedly he pressed Marshal Antonescu to end hostilities with Russia; he also protested against the persecution of Jews, and later demanded that Rumanian troops should be recalled from the Russian front.

Photo, Keystone

on August 6 to Bulgaria's actions: "Today, she is, no doubt, well pleased with her ill-gotten gains, but she may rest assured that in the end those will not benefit her. Her action will not be forgotten by ourselves, nor by our Allies, when the day of reckoning comes."

The economic situation quickly deteriorated, for Germany's debt to Bulgaria by the autumn was more than Bulgaria's entire annual budget. Prices doubled and trebled, and many classes of goods disappeared from the shops altogether. As elsewhere, Germany defaulted on her promised deliveries of commodities in return for the material filched from Bulgaria, and only a fraction of the proper quota came through. Wheat, of which Bulgaria normally exported a large proportion, was becoming scarce through the German commandeering and the hoarding by farmers. (Some 80 per cent of Bulgaria's active population was employed in agriculture.) From October all produce was requisitioned by the Government.

In the political field the Agrarian Party—largest and most influential—began to oppose King Boris, but had lost much of its power through the flight or expulsion of some of its more active leaders and the stern police control throughout the country. Other parties were in a like predicament.

During August Germany tried to induce Boris to agree to the raising of a volunteer detachment to fight on the Eastern front. On Sept. 11, 1941, the Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs handed to the Bulgarian Minister in Moscow a strong Note protesting against Bulgaria's attitude to Russia. Mr. Molotov spoke of many provocative acts at which, he said, the Bulgarian Government had connived. The Bulgarian reply "noted with regret that the Soviet were misinformed over the situation in Bulgaria; otherwise they would have no serious grounds for complaining of Bulgaria's disloyalty." On October 5 the President of the Bulgarian Sobranje said that the Bulgarian people sympathized with Russia but not with Bolshevism.

Bulgaria and the U.S.S.R.

Premier Stalin on November 6 had made a stirring speech to the Moscow Soviet, and among other things had said: "Hitler says that all the Slav peoples must be destroyed, as well as the Russian, Czech, Polish, Serb and Bulgarian peoples." Large numbers of a leaflet containing the speech were found by Bulgarian police in the hands of peasants a week later, and there were many arrests of so-called Communists at Sofia, Varna and Burgas.

During December there were indications of an approaching threat to Turkey, and reports spoke of a general mobilization planned for February 1942. Filoff, in a speech on December 2, said that Bulgaria was "waiting with enthusiasm to do her duty." Eleven days later Bulgaria declared war upon Britain and the United States, "acting in conformity with her obligations under the Tripartite Pact." The British Government on the 27th announced that they had been informed by the U.S. Government of this declaration, and that therefore a state of war existed from the 13th. The U.S.A. did not declare war until June 5, 1942, when parallel

declarations were made also regarding Hungary and Rumania. (*See* Historic Documents, page 2338.) According to a Turkish report Filoff stated soon after that by constantly sabotaging the Balkan Entente during the preceding ten years Bulgaria had effectively assisted Germany and Italy in their Balkan policy.

But however much Filoff and his Cabinet might try to persuade Bulgarians to enter the war against Russia they failed. Sabotage of the German war machine was continual; railway communications in the south of the country were so frequently interrupted that Germany had to maintain there an entire railway division. On March 14, 1942, there was circulated from Berlin by the "Agence Anatolie" a semi-official statement on German-Bulgarian relations: "Countries cooperating within a vast system must contrive to harmonize their friendly relations with their political aspirations based on their alliances; also, as everything depends on the issue of the war against the common foe, the importance and meaning of these alliances will depend on the attainment of that object." The statement referred to the reluctance of Bulgarians to cooperate actively in the war in Russia, and reminded them that "they cannot expect to keep their territorial acquisitions nor to receive additional awards unless they make a more effective contribution to the war against Russia."

King Boris visited Germany in the last week of March 1942, and the Premier shortly after stated that Bulgaria was ready for all sacrifices. "We are now in a state of war, with all its risks and dangers. . . . Our fate is indissolubly linked with that of our allies; the prosperity of our country could not exist outside the new European order." The first condition of the establishment of this new order, he said, was "the destruction of Bolshevism." There was a cabinet reshuffle on April 11: Filoff remained as Premier and Foreign Minister; General Mikhoff became Minister of War.

Internal unrest was growing, and in May 86 members of the forces were tried at Varna for Communist activities; at Gabrovo, Communists accused of distributing leaflets against the Government were arrested. Early in June General Zaimoff—a leader of the pro-Russian "Military Party"—was sentenced to death for espionage on behalf of Russia. In the same month 18 men stated to be Soviet parachutists, or agents landed by submarine on the Bulgarian coast, were sentenced to death.

When the Bulgarian Government at the end of July established a legation in Madrid (with the former Chargé d'Affaires in Madrid as Minister) it was interpreted in some quarters as a move to secure an outlet to the anti-Axis world through which at need feelers could be put out for a breakaway from Germany and Italy. King Boris probably saw that things were not going well with his allies. Inside Bulgaria things steadily went from bad to worse. Germany drained the country of its resources, and although Bulgarian troops were spared the grievous losses of Germany's other satellites they were harassed by guerillas in the occupied districts they were sent to garrison. The history of Bulgaria at this time was marked by an avid greed to acquire a hold on new territory, coupled with a strange blindness to the risks which the deterioration of Axis prospects might involve.

Under a new law for the protection of the State, executions were now to be carried out in public. The first were those, early in September 1942, of three Communists at Gorna-Djoumaia. Following a wave of sabotage Gestapo agents were sent to aid the Bulgarian police. Revolt broke out in several Bulgarian and Macedonian towns; a state of siege had to be proclaimed at Skoplje, in occupied Southern Yugoslavia. Near the Rumanian frontier at Popovo a railway bridge was blown up.

On September 11 Filoff made another of his speeches: "All the national forces of Bulgaria must take up the fight against Bolshevism and carry it through to victory." But at about this time there were reports from Turkish sources that at a Cabinet meeting, over which King Boris presided, it had been decided that in the event of an Allied invasion of the Balkans Bulgaria should adopt a passive attitude and allow the Allies to enter without resistance. In an official utterance when opening Parliament on October 28, however, the King merely echoed Filoff's confident statements of a few weeks earlier.

The growing might of the Allies in Libya, coupled with the successful landings in North Africa early in November, soon recalled both King and Premier to the realities of the situation. In Sofia a state of emergency was proclaimed to allow a search to be made for "suspicious elements." Five hundred Communists were arrested on December 5, and a few days later there was a widespread round-up of pro-Russian suspects. The death penalty was demanded for "minors spreading subversive ideas in schools"; the severest penalties were imposed on "persons undermining the morale of soldiers and officers, and poisoning the national spirit with rumours." By the end of 1942 the police had been doubled, and supplemented by many of the Gestapo. This, then, was the background against which King Boris and his coadjutors made what preparations they could for the eventual invasion of southern Europe by the British and American forces of liberation.



KING BORIS AND FIELD-MARSHAL GOERING

Goering (right) entertained the Bulgarian King when Boris visited Germany during the last week of March 1942; they are here seen at Goering's country seat, Karinhall. A few days after returning to Sofia from another visit to Hitler, in August 1943, King Boris died (August 28) in somewhat mysterious circumstances.

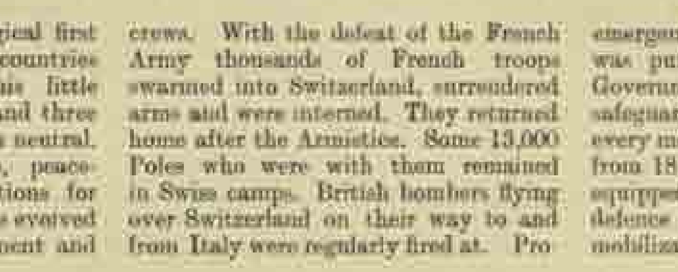
Photo, "New York Times" Photo

NEUTRAL EUROPE: SWITZERLAND, SWEDEN, PORTUGAL, SPAIN AND EIRE

Each of the neutral countries had its acute problems during the year 1942, the period traversed in this Chapter, and together they had a considerable influence on the policy of the belligerents. Germany and Italy, as the year went by, were compelled to modify their militant diplomacy and to pay more and more respect to the wishes and opinions of the few nations not involved in the great conflict

SWITZERLAND occupies a logical first place among the neutral countries of Europe, because this little nation of four million people and three official languages is by tradition neutral. The Swiss are a democratic, peace-loving people with no ambitions for external conquests. They have evolved an efficient system of government and administration, under which French-, German- and Italian-speaking sections live in harmony, and they are not swayed by political ideologies. The conquest of Switzerland by a great military power such as Nazi Germany would present formidable difficulties because of the nature of the country and the high standard of Swiss engineering. The principal gateways in the south are the Simplon and St. Gothard tunnels. These (and other tunnels) the High Command has mined and can close by pressing a button. The only routes between dozens of towns and villages, and even in parts between the cities, are narrow mountain-passes. Fortifications and artificial obstacles have been erected to protect open or vulnerable areas. The few practicable aerodromes have good defences. All this helps to explain the independent attitude of the Swiss, and the fact that, having no desire to be "protected" by any great Power, they are free from international entanglements and in every way in a position to hold fast to their neutrality.

Yet neutral Switzerland does not go and has not gone unmolested in this war. In 1940 there were many violations of her air space. The High Command made it known that it would attack any foreign aircraft over Swiss territory. During the German assault on France the Swiss shot down several German aeroplanes and interned the crews. With the defeat of the French Army thousands of French troops swarmed into Switzerland, surrendered arms and were interned. They returned home after the Armistice. Some 13,000 Poles who were with them remained in Swiss camps. British bombers flying over Switzerland on their way to and from Italy were regularly fired at. Protests were made by the Swiss Legation in London against all such violations of their neutrality. Bombs have been dropped in error in Basle, Zürich, Geneva, Renan and other places. Indemnities for damage have been demanded and paid. On April 28, 1938, the Federal Council had initiated a move to guarantee absolute neutrality, so intent were the Swiss on the inviolability of their country; but this was never achieved.



THE EUROPEAN NEUTRALS IN 1942

Sweden in the north, like Switzerland, was completely ringed around by the Axis belligerents. Eire was no less dominated by fear of the dreadful consequences that would attend involvement in the great conflict. Spain had assisted the Axis with soldiers and supplies. Portugal maintained a strict neutrality, as did Turkey, and both held fast to their treaties of alliance with Britain.

On August 29, 1939, full frontier mobilization was decreed. Next day full emergency powers were voted, the army was put on a war footing, and the Government announced its intention to safeguard and maintain neutrality by every means in its power. Every fit man from 18 to 65 was trained, armed and equipped, and was a specialist in the defence of his own district. General mobilization began on September 2. Arms export was forbidden; propaganda for any belligerent was prohibited; economic resources were adapted to war purposes; railways, communications and broadcasting came under government control. Men between 18 and 65 not under arms, and women between 18 and 60 became liable for national service. Petrol and food rationing soon followed. Price control and restrictions to prevent hoarding were introduced. Switzerland began to live in war conditions.

Problems of Switzerland

Her chief problem in this war was to supplement home-produced food by imports, for which she had to pay by the export of precision instruments and machinery mostly made with imported raw materials. In normal times this system worked well, and during the war it worked well enough, but there was little margin for comfort. The combination of mutual aid based on a sound social sense and good administration avoided any real suffering. By the end of 1942 the danger of being involved in the war was believed to have passed.

In her role of "professional neutral" Switzerland was not only engaged in great Red Cross activities for most of the belligerents, but was Protecting Power in Germany and Italy for Britain and the U.S.A.; for the U.S.A. in Japan; for Germany, Italy and Japan in the U.S.A. She acted for Germany in the

Netherlands East Indies and for Japan in Hongkong.

Though just as anxious as the Swiss to maintain their neutrality, the Swedes were not in so strong a natural position. Sweden was fearful of any changes which the U.S.S.R. might wish to make in the Baltic. She had reason to fear aggression by Germany after that country's treatment of Norway and Denmark. Britain, her best customer, was shut off and she became dependent on Germany for coal and for a market for her own iron ore and manufactured goods. A Nazi victory would mean the end of Swedish economic security and comfort and of the ideal of individual freedom. A United Nations victory would guarantee all these, and that, in final analysis, was the chief reason for Swedish neutrality.

A joint declaration of their determination to preserve the neutrality of "the north" was issued after a meeting of the Heads of State and Foreign Ministers of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden in October 1939—Sweden having announced her neutrality immediately on the outbreak of war. The first Russo-Finnish war, which began in December 1939, greatly perturbed the Swedes, who did not declare neutrality in that conflict. In his speech from the throne in January 1940 King Gustav said:

"Finland's having been forced into an armed conflict has deeply affected the Swedish people. Our willingness to assist a sister nation in her hour of need has been expressed in no uncertain fashion. We have felt and feel our obligation to give the people of Finland all the material and humanitarian assistance that our country can afford, having regard to her own position and resources."

In spite of strong pressure, the Stockholm Government refused to allow Allied forces passage to fight for the Finns. The Swedish view was that to do so would provide Germany with a *casus belli* on the grounds of intervention, and consequently would involve the risk of a German invasion of both Sweden and Finland, with a possibility that the U.S.S.R. would be drawn into the Great War on Germany's side and that all hopes of a settlement of the Russo-Finnish conflict would be lost. With this view the Finns agreed, and they abstained from asking for Allied intervention. Experience of the first Finnish war coloured the Swedish attitude towards Britain and France for some time, but, although the independence of Finland was regarded as a peculiarly Swedish interest, by the end of 1942 there was noticeable a marked cooling of public feeling for Finland and a strong growth of sentiment in favour of the United Nations.

Transit Through Sweden

After having overrun Norway, Denmark, Holland, Belgium and France, and when at the peak of her power, Germany demanded of Sweden free transit for personnel and goods between Germany and Norway. While refusing point-blank to grant so wide a demand, Sweden concluded with Germany a limited transit agreement in June 1940. Its terms were as follows:

Each week the number of soldiers travelling each way must be the same, so that the German army in Norway cannot be reinforced by this route.

German soldiers must travel unarmed; Swedish control officers must accompany the train.

The number of these trains passing over Swedish railways shall not exceed: one per day each way between Oslo and Trelleborg (or Helsingborg); three a week between Narvik and Trelleborg (or Helsingborg); two small trains weekly between Trondheim and Narvik are permitted to pass over Swedish railways part of the way.

Goods traffic: only articles of a general nature such as building materials, tools, clothing, and a few war materials. No special trains are allowed for this purpose.

Despite some very natural fears these transit concessions did not prove to be the thin edge of the wedge of German demands. Only once was there a deviation when, under extreme German pressure, a German division was allowed passage to Finland. Public opinion was such that the Government would not grant any further concessions.

There were minor incidents of infringement of neutrality as, for example, when a German courier plane which made a forced landing in Sweden was found to be carrying military personnel and to be equipped with machine-guns temporarily dismounted. A protest was delivered in Berlin, and stricter regulations were introduced by Germany for



SWITZERLAND CARRIED ON A NOBLE TRADITION

Holding aloof from war, though ever ready to defend herself against any aggressor, Switzerland gave ready aid to suffering Europe. At the Henri Dunant Centre, Geneva, named after the founder of the movement from which originated the International Red Cross organization, starving children from war-ravaged countries were given three months' rest and treatment. Above, some newcomers to the Centre receive a meal.

Photo, Keystone





SWEDEN CELEBRATES HER NATIONAL DAY

Above, the scene of enthusiasm in the great stadium at Stockholm on June 6, 1942—Day of the Swedish Flag. The standard has just been hoisted in the presence of the aged King Gustav, who had made his first public appearance after an illness. Inset, standing at the microphone, the King is calling for three cheers for Sweden.

Photos, Keystone

courier planes. A Swedish merchantship was gunned by an armed German merchantman in Swedish waters; German mines were found in Swedish waters. Such incidents drew strong protests.

Like the rest of neutral Europe, Sweden was almost on a war footing and suffered economically in consequence. Food imports were vital, and a temporary ban by the United Nations on safe-conduct ships threatened a heavy cut in the already severe rationing system. The Swedish official attitude towards Germany stiffened by the end of 1942. The Press became more outspoken, and the feeling of security grew as the armament programme was gradually implemented. The occasion and opportunity for any possible German aggression seemed to have passed, and the nation felt able to congratulate itself in having steered neutrality through some very perilous waters.

The Iberian peninsula must be considered in a twofold aspect—as a whole and in its two political divisions, Spain and Portugal. First to deal with Portugal: Why was Portugal neutral, in view of the long-standing Anglo-Portuguese Alliance? In 1914–18 she had been an active ally, and if Britain were now to insist upon fulfilment of the Alliance Portugal would either have to comply or break the link. Notwithstanding the strategic importance to the United Nations of Portugal and the Portuguese Colonial Empire, Britain did not call for such action. Portugal maintained the position defined in the official statement of September 2, 1939, as follows:

> "Fortunately, the obligations of our Alliance with Great Britain (which we cannot fail to confirm at so grave a juncture) do not compel us to abandon our position of neutrality in this emergency."

Had Britain asserted her claims at that difficult and delicate moment it might have driven an unwilling Dr. Salazar into the arms of the Axis Powers. On June 15, 1941, when the Anglo-Soviet Alliance was announced, Dr. Salazar made the cryptic statement that Portuguese neutrality was "continually subject to revision."

The paradoxes and inconsistencies of a position in which an ally remains neutral and does nothing to help in a period of grave danger call for some explanation. Briefly it is this: While Dr. Salazar and his supporters (and the Portuguese people) wished to see the military triumph of Britain's side in the war, he and his regime (but not the Portuguese people) looked for the political triumph of the Axis.

Portugal's Position Explained

For Portugal was ruled by a clerico-Fascist totalitarian regime under Dr. Salazar, who frequently declared his belief that liberalism and democracy were finished and that authoritarian rule was the system of the future. A military victory for the Axis would guarantee Salazar's regime; he would then see Europe ruled as he thought it ought to be. But such an Axis victory would not guarantee the great Portuguese Colonial Empire and might even mean the end of it. On the other hand, Dr. Salazar knew that a victory for Britain would leave his Colonial Empire intact and safe. Faced with this dilemma, he chose the path of neutrality. The regime was neutral, but the entire Portuguese people was pro-British.

Minor incidents disturbed Portuguese neutrality from time to time, but there

was a graver affair in which Britain was involved. Sovereignty over the little island of Timor in the Pacific had long been shared by Dutch and Portuguese. On November 4, 1941—a month before the attack on Pearl Harbour—Britain wished to learn the position of Timor, whether Portugal would accept British assistance for its defence against Japanese aggression and, if so, whether a plan for joint defence ought not to be studied. While the Portuguese were unwilling to envisage a Japanese attack they agreed to the principle of British assistance—that was the essence of the Alliance—and were also ready to consider joint plans. The Japanese attack on the U.S.A. in the Pacific was so sudden and unscrupulous (with their submarines encircling Timor) that Britain took time by the forelock and in the same month of December 1941 landed a force of Australian troops to collaborate with the Dutch and Portuguese in the defence of the island. The Portuguese Governor protested against this landing, which he could not prevent; acting on instructions from Lisbon, he filed a protest with the Government of Australia.



SPAIN AND PORTUGAL FORM AN IBERIAN BLOC

General Jordana, Spanish Foreign Minister, arrived at Lisbon on December 18, 1942, for discussions with Dr. D'Oliveira Salazar, Premier of Portugal (right), about joint action to protect the Iberian Peninsula against any aggressor. On the 21st President Carmona of Portugal said, "Portugal and Spain have defined the path of their future."

Photo, Associated Press

In Portugal this action by Britain on behalf of her ally and in the interests of Australian defence was officially denounced as "aggression against our Colonial Empire." Dr. Salazar spoke of the "so-called troops of 'protection'"; the officially controlled press and radio expressed the utmost indignation. A wordy turmoil was finally closed by the dispatch of a Portuguese force from Lourenço Marques to relieve the Australians. An official Portuguese announcement expressed confidence that the solution of the Timor problem "would give perfect satisfaction to Portugal's sovereign rights." Before the Portuguese reached Timor, however, Japanese forces had landed there, on February 20, 1942.

Australians Land in Timor

Guerilla fighting between the invaders and composite bands of Australians, Dutch and loyal natives—known as "Sparrow Force"—continued for many months (see illus., page 2312).

Spanish neutrality was of a special brand—it stood in a class by itself. The regime of General Franco was more violently Fascist and totalitarian than that of Dr. Salazar and, furthermore, enjoyed the doubtful honour of having been set up with the help of military and air forces provided by Hitler and Mussolini. Falangism (as the Nazi-Fascism of Spain was called) owed its achievement of power to the Axis; it was not a mass-movement like National Socialism or Italian Fascism, and its power was won and maintained by force. In both Portugal and Spain internal power rested on the twin pillars of Church and Army. While Portugal's external support was Great Britain, that of Spain's was Nazi Germany. A military defeat of the Axis would remove Franco's external bulwark, with the risk of a severe threat to his regime by the much oppressed and discontented mass of the Spanish people.

Nationalist Spain declared neutrality on September 4, 1939, but later took on Mussolini's mantle of "non-belligerency" when Italy declared war on France on June 10, 1940. Neither General Franco nor the leaders of his regime and of Falangism attempted to conceal their wish for an Axis victory. They strained Spanish neutrality to the utmost to render help to the Axis, and even sent a "Blue Division" of volunteers to join in the war against Russia (see illus., p. 2032). In December 1942 this division was declared to be part of the Spanish regular army, a declaration running counter to international law and, in fact, tantamount to a declaration of war against the U.S.S.R. On October 23, 1940, Spain's

'Non-belligerency' in Spain

REINFORCEMENTS FOR THE AZORES GARRISON

In the early months of 1941 Portugal sent more troops to the islands of the Azores; at the right some of the units are boarding a liner for the journey. Left, Dr. Salazar, in centre, inspects the new-style equipment of the soldiers, discussing details with Captain Santos Costa (right, in civilian dress), Portuguese Under-Secretary for War

Photo, Associated Press







HITLER AND FRANCO

Before going to his meeting with General Franco (right) at a small town on the border of France and Spain on October 23, 1940, Hitler (left) had seen Mussolini at the Brenner—October 4—and he met the Duce again on the 28th, at Florence. Meanwhile, on the morrow of the conversations with Franco, Hitler had discussed with Pétain the ways and means of collaboration.

Photo, Keystone

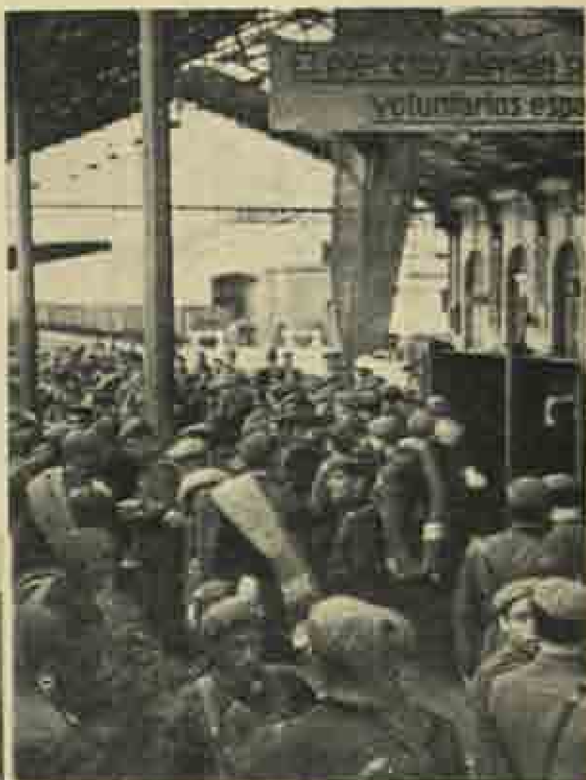
role in the war had been settled at a meeting of Franco and Hitler, and defined by Spain's Foreign Minister in an interview with the Vossische Zeitung, Hitler's official organ: "Spain," he said, "is only momentarily non-belligerent. General Franco will determine the moment of abandonment of this policy."

It was concluded from this that Spain would remain out of the war, or come in, in accordance with the wishes of Berlin. And that, meanwhile, she was much more useful to the Axis as a "non-belligerent." General Franco began military preparations on an elaborate scale. He increased the national Budget by 50 per cent (and by more later), the excess being spent on armaments. A "Crusade against Bolshevism" was proclaimed; a "Falangist Empire" to include Gibraltar and parts of North Africa was announced as a goal. Franco openly expressed a wish for an Axis victory. Aggression was in the air, and took the form of the seizure by Franco forces of the International Zone of Tangier on June 14, 1940, in defiance of international agreements with Britain, France and other nations. Britain protested, and agreed to a *modus vivendi* until the end of the war. Needless to say, all this caused heartburnings among the United Nations, but Spain's vital strategic position demanded that she be kept "as neutral as possible."

The Anglo-American landing in North Africa on November 7, 1942, and the highly successful African campaign of the United Nations caused a fundamental change in Spain. In December 1942 Franco concluded with Salazar an Iberian Pact for the defence of the Peninsula against any aggressor. The moment for an Axis "march through Spain" seemed to have passed, and with it the visions of a "Falangist Empire." General Franco's star was on the wane, and now it seemed that all his efforts must be concentrated on one fundamental problem: the preservation of his regime after the defeat of Germany. The following year was to see his anxieties heightened.

Future of Iberian Peninsula

When the many problems attendant on the reconstitution of post-war Europe come to be dealt with; difficulties may arise over the continuance of forms of government which do not fully represent the wishes of the people. From the beginning, Spanish and Portuguese neutrality were based on the interests of regimes and not peoples. The latter, sympathizing with the





FALANGISTS GO TO RUSSIA

Above (July 1941), the first batch of Spanish Falangist volunteers reach the Spanish-French border en route to the Eastern front. (The banner reads "The German Army Greets Spanish Volunteers.") In the late summer of 1943, when the tide of war had turned decisively against the Axis, General Franco agreed to recall his ill-fated Blue Division. Left, a demonstration in Madrid by the Falangist Legion, formed to fight against Russia.

Photos, Associated Press; Keystone

democracies, had had little or nothing to say in the attitudes of their Governments.

The neutrality of Eire aroused much ill-informed and often acrimonious comment in Britain and the U.S.A. The subject bristled with difficulties, and its possibilities for dissension and quarrels were not ignored by Nazi propaganda. Eire's neutrality rested on a solid basis. On April 25, 1938, the Governments of Britain and Eire signed an Agreement by which Article 7 and its Annexe of the Anglo-Irish Treaty of 1921 (which by implication made the Irish Free State a co-belligerent of a Britain at war) "ceased to have effect," and at the same time gave Eire full and final sovereignty over, and possession of, Lough Swilly, Berehaven, and Queenstown (see map, page 1145), hitherto reserved to the British Admiralty for naval bases. This and other British legislation put beyond doubt Eire's legal right to choose between belligerency and neutrality.

Basis of Eire's Neutrality

In September 1939 the Eire Government chose neutrality. Both the people and their representatives showed an almost unanimous approval for this course. The general feeling was that to enter a modern mechanized war that was none of Eire's making—and with almost "bare hands"—would be to invite a suicidal risk. Further, to assert and maintain neutrality would be one more affirmation of Ireland's sovereign rights—already declared in the Eire Constitution of 1937 which is conceived to embrace the whole of Ireland. It was because of the terms of this Constitution that Mr. de Valera felt bound to record a protest against the landing of U.S. troops in Northern Ireland in 1942, for the Constitution treats that territory as an integral part of Ireland, though conceived to be temporarily severed from the rest by an artificial and externally imposed line of partition unrelated to the wishes of the majority of the Irish people and subject to reconsideration.

Once neutrality was decided upon the Eire Government showed itself determined to observe and maintain it in the spirit and in the letter—a neutrality that was accepted by all the belligerents. It was so strictly observed that no references to the war were permitted by press, radio or any other medium that might be used for propaganda by either side. Only official communiqués and the bald statements of the various commands were allowed. This attitude was not indicative of any lack of sympathy towards the struggle of the United Nations against Hitlerism, certainly as much detested in Ireland as in Britain. It was merely an instinctive shrinking from a terrible war which the Irish people felt that their enfeebled country was in no position to sustain. In proof of their sympathy the Irish came to Britain in thousands to help Britain's war effort, and those residing in Britain or elsewhere in the British Commonwealth joined in the war effort on the same basis as English, Welsh, Scots, or Dominions folk. An American survey* gave 150,000 as the figure of Eire enlistments in British fighting forces—5 per cent of Eire's population—with at least as many more Eire citizens (men and women) enrolled in the general war effort. After December 1941 many more thousands joined in that effort.

Eire paid for her neutrality with much discomfort and considerable hardship. She suffered from a double blockade. Her shipping functioned under the Navicert system, and sailed without the protection of the British Navy. Eire ships were sunk by U-boats. Death came from the air. German planes dropped bombs on isolated spots, in towns and villages and even on Dublin. (In the early hours of May 31, 1941, many houses were demolished in Dublin, and 34 persons killed. The next night a bomb was dropped in County Wicklow.) The German Government expressed regrets for such mistakes by its airmen. Eire suffered shortages of tea, bread and coal. There were black-outs, rationing, limited hours for the use of gas, scarcely any petrol. Trains ran on peat fuel at snail's pace, with greatly restricted services. Indeed, apart from Spain, which had not recovered from her disastrous civil war, there was no neutral country which suffered more than Eire in the Second Great War.



EIRE WARNS U-BOATS OF HER NEUTRALITY

Above, a merchant ship of Eire with flag and nationality markings on her sides. Such a step was very necessary, for on June 5, 1942, the Irish steamer 'City of Bremen' had been bombed and sunk by a German aircraft off Vigo.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

AFTER BOMBING OF DUBLIN, MAY 30, 1941

On the night of May 30–31 German aircraft dropped bombs which wrecked many houses and killed 34 persons. The windows of the President's official residence were broken. Here is the scene next morning in North Strand, Dublin.

Photo, Planet News



* "American Mercury," December 1941

RECORD AND REVIEW OF MAIN EVENTS JANUARY TO JUNE, 1942

A survey of the year 1940 is given in Chapter 151, and of the year 1941 in Chapter 203. The present review covers the first six months of 1942: the theatre of war has widened immensely, and its record demands more space than was previously allotted. Dates collated with the Chronology published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs

The opening of 1942 found Britain and the Empire somewhat stunned by the disasters of the previous weeks in the Far East. Japan's first swift victories at Hongkong, Singapore and Pearl Harbour had brought an awakening to imminent perils yet to be faced. Allied Naval preponderance in Far Eastern waters had gone; the vulnerability of British and American outposts there was all too obvious. The gravest and most immediate peril was in Malaya, where, at the beginning of January, the Japanese established themselves at Kuantan, on the eastern coast of the peninsula; on the west side they had advanced into northern Perak. More troops landed at the mouth of the Bernam river (see map, p. 2045), and after a stand on the Slim River (Jan. 7) our forces withdrew from Port Swettenham and the great rubber centre of Kuala Lumpur (Jan. 11). Pushing along the west coast, the Japanese were engaged on the Muar river by British troops who had now been reinforced by Major-General Gordon Bennett's Australians. All the time the enemy was making landings on our flank, and on the 13th he put troops ashore at three points near Batu Pahat, 65 miles N. of Singapore. Concurrently his forces infiltrated through the jungle south of our Muar position, which had then to be abandoned (Jan. 19).

Drive Down Malay Peninsula

In the central region the Japanese thrust through Pahang was meanwhile making rapid progress, with heavy fighting at Gemas and Batu Anam. On the eastern coast the enemy landed at Endau (Jan. 19) and forced the withdrawal of a British outpost; more Japanese troops were put ashore in this sector a week later. Australians fought a stiff engagement south of Mersing, but the invaders were in too great strength to be halted, and by the end of January had reached the southern tip of the peninsula. The threefold drive of the Japanese was relentlessly thrusting British and Imperial troops back to Singapore. Batu Pahat fell on Jan. 25; Pontian Besar four days later. In the central region the enemy was at Ayer Hitam; on the east he had reached Ulu Sedili, and by the occupation of Kulai had come within 18 miles of Johore Causeway.

British and Imperial forces withdrew across the Causeway from the mainland on the night of Jan. 30. Enemy air raids did much damage and on Feb. 4 set fire to the great Naval base; after demolition by our forces it was evacuated on the 8th. Four days later came the first enemy landing on Singapore Island—in the N.W. corner, at 11 p.m. On the 9th Tengah aerodrome was lost. Over the Causeway—breached by our sappers but soon repaired by the enemy—reinforcements and supplies for the Japanese were sent in great quantity. Night after night more enemy landings were carried out, and by the 12th almost half Singapore Island was in Japanese hands. The vital reservoirs of McRitchie and Kalang were lost on Feb. 14, and by capturing Blakang mati island, just S. of Singapore, the enemy blocked the way to aid from the sea. The arc of defence, centred on Singapore city, rapidly contracted under the pressure of new bodies of Japanese and the battering from enemy artillery and aircraft. General Wavell visited Singapore a few days before its fall. On the morning of Sunday, Feb. 15, 1942, the British commander—Lieut.-General A. E. Percival—sent a flag of truce to the Japanese and accepted the enemy's terms—unconditional surrender of Malaya and Singapore, with some 70,000 British and Imperial troops. Hostilities ceased at 10 p.m. that night.

Rearguard Action in Burma

In the middle of January 1942 Japanese forces advanced into Tenasserim from Siam and took Tavoy (see map in p. 2051). Concurrently with their drive down southward to Singapore they were now developing the Burma offensive more rapidly. They crossed the Salween river on Feb. 2, and by the capture of Martaban eight days later gained control of both banks. Indian troops repulsed the enemy at Paan, but on the 15th the British forces withdrew to the Bilin river line (map in p. 2052). Japanese forces in Burma now numbered some 70,000, and under heavy pressure the British withdrew again, this time to a line on the Sittang. Great heroism was displayed here in trying to hold a bridgehead on the east bank, and the Duke of Wellington's Regt., with Indians and Gurkhas, put up a magnificent but unavailing fight.

Since the enemy had cut the Burma Road at Pegu, and in view of Japanese progress on the Sittang line, it became politic to abandon Rangoon, which was evacuated on March 7, after heavy fighting in the Pegu area. Two days earlier General Hutton had handed over the Burma command to Lieut.-General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander, whose task was indeed a difficult one—nothing less than the disengagement of British and Imperial forces and their withdrawal, fighting almost all the way, over the mountains into India. The Japanese advance along the Irrawaddy and Toungoo valleys threatened to cut off Allied forces from China. Chinese troops under General Joseph Stilwell (U.S. Army) had fought alongside the British on the Sittang line; others, in the Toungoo area, had put up a stiff fight against mixed Siamese, rebel Burmese and Japanese, but had had to give ground finally.

Lack of air support told against the British forces, and by the end of March the enemy held a line from Paungde in the Irrawaddy valley to Toungoo on the Sittang. A stand was made to cover the oilfields of Yenangyaung, but soon it became necessary to take up positions behind the town, after destroying plant and oil wells. In addition to the two enemy thrusts along the Irrawaddy and Sittang valleys there was danger now from a third, which menaced the Chinese flank by an invasion of the Shan States from northern Siam. Karenni and Pyinmana (W. of the Salween) were captured on April 21. The Japanese at this stage bombed large areas indiscriminately, causing streams of refugees to make for the Assam frontier and complicating the withdrawal in the same direction of our armed forces; 400,000 people eventually made their way to India, including 14,000 taken by air.

General Alexander chose the route up the Chindwin valley (see map in p. 2061), because the railway to Myitkina was threatened by a Japanese advance from northern Siam which, in fact, cut the line at Monywa early in May. Pursuit by the enemy was checked by a sharp action at Shwegyin on May 10; five days later the safe entry into Assam of the Burma Army was announced. The Government of Burma had set up its headquarters in Delhi on May 14, 1942. On July 8 the Governor stated that of the 14,000,000 inhabitants of Burma not more than 4,000 had actively helped the Japanese, and these belonged to the anti-British Thakin Party.

Attack on the Dutch Islands

Although the Netherlands Government had declared war on Dec. 8, 1941, it was not till Jan. 10, 1942, that Japan attacked the Netherlands East Indies. The first blow was at Tarakan, an island off the E. coast of Borneo (see map in p. 2058). While Netherlands Army bombers attacked the invaders a small Dutch force on shore held off the Japanese until the oil plant had been demolished, retiring then to continue guerilla resistance. On the 23rd a large Japanese invasion fleet approached Balik Papan, farther south along the Borneo coast, and was attacked by Dutch and American Naval forces and aircraft. In a three-day battle 25 enemy ships were sunk by air attack alone, and Balik Papan was relinquished only after extensive demolition which put the oil wells and plant out of commission, as it proved, for the next 18 months.

Heavy bombing of Java began early in February. On the 11th Vice-Admiral C. E. L. Helfrich (Royal Netherlands Navy) had been appointed Allied Naval C.-in-C. in the S.W. Pacific. A man of immense energy and a skilful commander, his plan was to win time for the Allies by daring surprise attacks. On Feb. 15 the Japanese attacked Palembang, in southern Sumatra, using parachute troops. In the evening the Dutch commander there decided to fire the oil plants and to withdraw, owing to heavy losses. British and Dutch airmen attacked the invasion craft in Banka Strait; late on the 16th their airfields were endangered by enemy parachute troops, and they flew then to bases on Java. Dutch troops made their way inland to Padang, on the W. coast of Sumatra. An Allied Naval striking force under Rear-Admiral K. Doorman (Royal Netherlands Navy) tried to harass the enemy landing from the sea, and was bombed for hours by Japanese aircraft; for lack of air

cover from Palembang the operation was abandoned.

Java's plight became grave, pounded continually by enemy bombers and daily expecting a land assault. But first the enemy decided to subdue Bali, separated from Java on the west by the narrow Bali Strait, and from Lombok island on the east by Lombok Strait (see map in p. 2058). A large Japanese invasion fleet obviously destined for Java had assembled in the Macassar Strait and the South China Sea, while Doorman's squadron had gone to Tjilatjap on the S. coast of Java to refuel. Japanese troops landed on Bali on Feb. 19 and seized the aerodrome at Den Pasar.

Battle of Bali Strait

Doorman planned a double attack on the invasion craft and their escort. His own force—two Dutch cruisers and one Dutch destroyer with two American destroyers—raced along the S. coast of Java, and on the 19th at 9 p.m. came in contact with enemy warships off Bali, at the S. entrance to Lombok Strait. In the course of a ten-minute battle with a superior Japanese force, which included 8-inch-gun cruisers, the Dutch destroyer "Piet Hein" was sunk. Much damage was inflicted on enemy warships and transports.

The second part of the attack was delivered after midnight by another Allied Naval force, from Surabaya, on the N. coast of Java—the Dutch cruiser "Tromp" and four American destroyers—which passed through Bali Strait and so came to the S. entrance to Lombok Strait, as planned. The "Tromp" was mauled by an enemy 8-inch-gun cruiser, and after a running fight had to be taken out of the battle, followed by one American destroyer which had been hit in the stern. Two other Americans, their way blocked by the Japanese, turned and steamed away southward. By these brilliant surprise attacks Doorman had barred the enemy from using Bali for the invasion of Java by land forces; the Japanese fleet off Bali had also been bombed by Dutch aircraft and American Flying Fortresses, and the enemy had lost in all some 25 ships, including one cruiser at least.

The seat of Government on Java was at Batavia, in the W. of the island; the chief point of resistance was at Bandung (see map in p. 2074). On March 1 the enemy landed at Bantam, Indramayu and Rembang. With Java's long and vulnerable coastline it would be impossible to prevent invasion, even with forces ten times as strong as those actually available to the defence. The burden fell mainly on the Allied Naval squadron. There were two Japanese naval thrusts to be countered—one from the Macassar Strait directed southward, and the other from the South China Sea. Doorman's Naval force refuelled at Surabaya and then made sweeps along the N. coast of Madura and Java. Under his command were now two Dutch, one American, one British and one Australian cruisers; two Dutch, three British and four American destroyers.

At 4 p.m. on Feb. 27, 1942, Doorman's squadron came up with the Japanese fleet (45 transports, eight cruisers and about 12 destroyers) off the island of Bawean, 60 miles N. of Surabaya. At ten miles' range one of the enemy was hit. The 8-inch-gun cruiser "Exeter," hit in the boiler room a little later, dropped out and was escorted back to Surabaya by a Dutch destroyer. Another Dutch destroyer and the British destroyers "Electra" and "Jupiter," were sunk in the confused battle which followed and lasted until sunset.

Doorman's striking force was now reduced to four cruisers, since his destroyers had fired all their torpedoes and were too low in fuel to join in. The Dutch commander made a final sweep westward to inflict more damage on the enemy. The squadron's last fight began soon after midnight, when shells at five miles' range hit the Dutch cruiser "De Ruyter." A little later it blew up, together with the "Java," having been torpedoed. The U.S. cruiser "Houston" and the Australian "Perth" broke off the action and made for Tandjong Priok, the harbour of Batavia, but their way through Sunda Strait was blocked by the enemy; both were lost while trying to get through to the Indian Ocean. The Dutch destroyer "Evertsen" met a similar fate, going aground in the Strait when caught by two enemy cruisers. H.M.S. "Exeter," after repairs at Surabaya, left with the destroyer "Encounter" and the American "Pope" to try to break through Bali Strait, but were lost. The only survivors of Doorman's gallant squadron were four American destroyers.

The enemy established his beach-heads on Java during the first day of his invasion (March 1). Outnumbered five times or more, the defenders could only fall back fighting doggedly. In the eastern sector General Ilgen held out eight days before yielding. In the west many of Lieut.-General Hein ter Poorten's troops were cut off by enemy infiltration before reaching the mountain line where a stand was to be made. With ample air power and artillery the enemy soon crushed all resistance, and by the middle of March the battle of Java was over but for guerilla warfare. Admiral Helfrich had left with his staff on March 1; three days later he laid down his command of the Allied forces in that area. His ships had fought on till destroyed, and the Allied squadron no longer existed. Bandung and Surabaya fell on March 9. The Governor-General of the Netherlands East Indies, Jhr. A. W. L. Tjarda van Starkenborgh Stachouwer, and Lieut.-General ter Poorten were taken prisoner and interned.

Struggle in the Philippines

On New Year's Day, 1942, the evacuation of Manila and the concentration of General Douglas MacArthur's American and Filipino troops in the Bataan peninsula were completed. Japanese troops occupied the Philippine capital next day. The fortress of Corregidor was heavily bombed every day from Jan. 2 to Jan. 7; an air attack on Dec. 29, 1941, had killed 20 and wounded 87. On Jan. 6 the Japanese attack on Bataan began; the enemy was held. Reinforced, he struck on the 12th and again on the 15th, when the struggle continued for three days and ended with the penetration of the defenders' centre.

Japanese transports continued to land troops daily in the Gulf of Lingayen and Subic Bay; with the aid of these reinforcements the enemy opened another assault on the 22nd; next day a salient half a mile square was driven into MacArthur's lines. On Jan. 26 MacArthur withdrew to his second line (see map in p. 2072), farther south down the peninsula.

New tactics were tried by the enemy on Jan. 28. After a heavy frontal attack which lasted until Feb. 1 Japanese troops landed at four points on the western side of Bataan, but the defending beach forces and motor torpedo-boats sank landing barges and repulsed the Japanese. An attempted enemy landing at Corregidor on the night of Jan. 31 was similarly beaten off. After a lull the offensive was renewed on Feb. 9, by which time the enemy had five divisions on Bataan, another on the line of communications, and a seventh in Manila. There was a heavy attack in the centre, beaten back by MacArthur's men. Large-calibre Japanese guns shelled the peninsula from the southern shores of Manila Bay. Dive-bombing attacks were unceasing; there were no continuous fortified lines on Bataan and all the defenders had for protection were "foxholes," in which one or several men took refuge, weapon pits and machine-gun nests. Drinking water grew scarce as the brooks dried up under the hot sun, while the presence of many thousands of refugees on the peninsula made the food problem grave.

On March 11 MacArthur left to take up supreme command of the United Nations' forces in the S.W. Pacific, with his base in Australia. He handed over to Major-General Jonathan Wainwright. MacArthur travelled by motor torpedo-boat to Mindanao, whence he went by air to Australia on the 18th. Corregidor was attacked by mass formations of bombers from March 24 onwards, and on the last night of March there came what was to prove the final and decisive assault against Bataan. On the night of April 3 the American right centre was driven back, and there were landings—in the main unsuccessful—along the eastern side of the peninsula. The offensive went on until the night of the 7th, with the enemy steadily gaining ground. In view of the hopeless nature of his position Wainwright then ordered a general withdrawal. A report on April 9 stated that his east flank had been enveloped; later that day Washington announced that the defences of Bataan had been overcome. Wainwright continued the resistance from Corregidor, which held out for a further 27 days.

Corregidor had its 250th air raid on April 27; it was shelled by heavy guns from Manila Bay and, later, by others which the enemy posted on Bataan. The decisive land attack opened at midnight of May 4. After shelling the beaches the enemy came across the channel and rushed the defences. Then all news ceased until MacArthur's H.Q. in Australia announced on May 6 that all resistance had been overcome. Wainwright had chosen to stay with his troops. Thus Luzon, largest of the Philippine Islands, had been overcome. Mindanao island—the next most important—had been invaded on January 6, 1942, but fighting went on there between General Sharp's forces and the enemy until the capitulation of Corregidor enforced the surrender of the other island forces.

By her conquests Japan had obtained a chain of bases extending south and south-west from her own islands to the Indian Ocean and the waters around Australia. The threat to that continent had been disclosed by Japanese landings in Rabaul (New Britain) and Kavieng (New Ireland) towards the end of January 1942. Port Moresby (Papua) was bombed from Feb. 2 onwards.

Menace to India and Australia

On Feb. 19 Japanese forces landed in Portuguese Timor and secured an airfield at Dili; by a parachute attack on Kupang in Dutch Timor four days later Japan gained another airfield within useful range of the Australian mainland. Kieta, on Bougainville island (Solomons), was occupied on Feb. 19. Japanese landings at Lae and Salamaua (New Guinea) on March 8 emphasized the menace to Australia.

Japanese warships entered the Bay of Bengal early in April; the Andaman Islands had been evacuated by British forces on March 12. In what seems to have been the prelude to an intended invasion of Ceylon, Japanese aircraft bombed Colombo on April 5 and attacked Trincomalee on the 9th; they lost 27 and 21 aircraft respectively. The defending guns and planes had been warned on April 4 by the pilot of a Catalina on reconnaissance; he radioed the information which enabled the defence to prepare for

the raiders (see p. 2222). Such heavy losses deterred the enemy from further attempts, but on the other side of the account there was the loss of four British warships—destroyer "Vampire," cruisers "Dorsetshire" and "Cornwall," and aircraft carrier "Hermes"—sunk by air attack after leaving Ceylon ports.

In Australia there was at first some talk of a withdrawal southwards in order to concentrate the scanty defence forces around vital centres. This idea was rejected, and General MacArthur's plan called for meeting the Japanese in New Guinea and there fighting the battle for Australia. At the end of December 1941 Australia's Premier (Mr. Curtin) had startled the Empire by his statement that the Dominion should "look to America" for her immediate salvation.

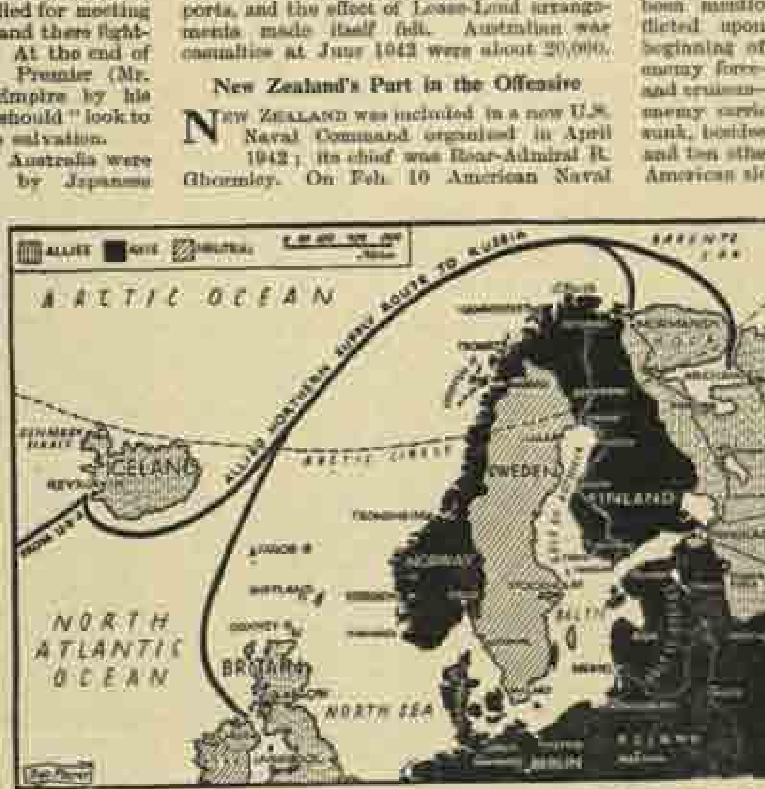
The first bombs to fall on Australia were dropped at Port Darwin by Japanese aircraft which surprised the defences on Feb. 19, 1942. Then Broome on the W. coast and Townsville on the east were raided. There were fears that Port Moresby—key position for an invasion—would be subjugated. A Pacific War Council was set up at Washington on March 30, 1942; it had a counterpart in London. At the desire of Mr. Churchill Australia's Minister at Washington, Mr. R. G. Casey, was appointed Britain's Minister of State in Cairo, with membership of the British War Cabinet. Sir Owen Dixon eventually took over Mr. Casey's post at Washington.

The A.I.F. and the Australian regular militia had been combined into one force not long before General MacArthur took over the S.W. Pacific Command. General Gordon Bennett, reaching the Dominion after escaping from Singapore, gave the warning that the Japanese attack was "coming very quickly." Dr. van Mook, of the Netherlands East Indies Government, proclaimed from Adelaide, where he arrived on March 9, that there should be "an end to destroying and retreating." Next day a Japanese invasion fleet heading for Port Moresby was crippled by bombs dropped by Allied aircraft based in Australia; seven enemy ships were put out of action. Air raids against the enemy in Salamaua, Lae and Rabaul followed. Mr. Curtin in a broadcast to America (March 13) said that "Our minds are set on attack." On the 18th Allied air attacks on shipping and shore installations in New Guinea put out of action four warships and damaged five others, while five enemy transports were sunk—all this for the loss of one Allied aircraft. Six weeks later came the Battle of the Coral Sea, when American naval and air forces intercepted a Japanese invasion fleet off the Solomons (May 4). Resumed in the Coral Sea on May 7, the battle continued until the 9th; the enemy fleet then withdrew northwards, having lost seven major warships, with two probably sunk. American losses were the aircraft carrier "Lexington," one destroyer, and a tanker.

Australia was represented in the British War Cabinet by Sir Earle Page up till May 1942, and then by Mr. S. M. Bruce. Following General MacArthur's appointment to the Allied Command in the S.W. Pacific, General Blamey became C.-in-C. land forces in Australia. After the fall of Singapore—termed "Australia's Dunkirk" by Mr. Curtin—all the resources of the country were mobilized (Feb. 17). Man-power for the Services and for industry was released by recruiting women to work in offices and factories and on the land. By the end of February American convoys were reaching Australian ports, and the effect of Lease-Lend arrangements made itself felt. Australian war casualties at June 1942 were about 20,000.

New Zealand's Part in the Offensive

NEW ZEALAND was included in a new U.S. Naval Command organized in April 1942; its chief was Rear-Admiral R. Ghormley. On Feb. 10 American Naval personnel arrived at Wellington as the vanguard of reinforcements along a chain of stations extending to Pearl Harbour. Control of industrial man-power was instituted in January; in March conscription was extended by the registration of the 46-50 age groups, and women were enrolled for war work. By the end of June between 80,000 and 90,000 men were in the Army overseas or in training; 138,000 were in the Home Guard, Territorials or National Military Reserve. In the Civil Defence Services there were 93,000 men and women. War finance policy was on a "pay as you go" plan. Taxation and borrowing had produced £104,000,000 in the first 30 months of the war—£63 per head of New Zealand's population.



HAZARDS OF THE NORTHERN SUPPLY ROUTES TO RUSSIA

British and American aid to Russia was mainly in the form of supplies, conveyed through the perilous Arctic Ocean to Murmansk. From that port they were carried by rail to Leningrad. Continuous air and sea attacks were made on the convoys and their escorting warships, in which we suffered, and inflicted, severe losses.

Courtesy of the "Daily Express"

American Strategy After Pearl Harbour

AMERICA'S organization for war during the period under review was determined by the understanding between the United Nations that their first task was to knock out Germany. With America's existing resources, the most that could be done in the Pacific would be to keep open the lines of communication and to hold the Japanese so as to prevent the invasion of Australia. The U.S.A. manned or strengthened the island bases on a line curving southwards from Hawaii to Australia; American troops and aircraft reinforced British and Imperial forces in New Zealand and Australia; U.S. Naval reinforcements also were sent to these Dominions, and New Zealand came under a special U.S. Naval Command. In the north, Alaska and the Aleutians were reinforced, while the Alaska-Canada Highway was begun so as to furnish a supply route to those regions.

The successful action in the Coral Sea has been mentioned. Another defeat was inflicted upon the Japanese navy at the beginning of June. On the 4th a strong enemy force—aircraft carriers, capital ships and cruisers—attacked Midway Island. Four enemy carriers were bombed and probably sunk, besides two cruisers; three battleships and ten other ships were damaged. On the American side the only losses were the aircraft carrier "Yorktown" and the destroyer "Hammann." This repulse of the enemy not only saved the important naval base, but forestalled a major effort to take Hawaii. Concurrently the Japanese had bombed Dutch Harbour, in the Aleutians, with carrier-borne aircraft; four days later they landed on the outlying Aleutian islands of Kiska and Attu, then ungarrisoned.

Herculean efforts in American Navy yards were making good much of the loss sustained at Pearl Harbour. Gradually, during the first half of 1942, the United States swung into position for the offensive. The shipbuilding target for 1942 was 8,000,000 tons deadweight. An equally ambitious plan for building cargo aircraft was set going. Aircraft, tanks and other weapons, with enormous quantities of equipment, were provided for Russia. Jointly with that sent from Great Britain, in the course of 12 months this flow of major weapons totalled 3,000 aircraft and 4,000 tanks. Across the Atlantic and the African continent American bombers were sent to the Middle East, where the 9th U.S. Air Force was being built up.

Turn of the Wheel in Libya

BY the middle of January 1942 General Sir Claude Auchinleck's offensive (see p. 2028) had carried the Eighth Army as far as Jedabia. Bardia, Sollum and Halfaya fell into our hands during the early weeks of the year. Rommel was making a stand at El Agheila, where he had a strong position; he had obtained considerable reinforcements of men, aircraft, tanks and guns. He had a short supply line to Tripoli, whereas supplies and reinforcements for the Eighth Army had to come over a single road all the way from the railhead not very many miles W. of the Egyptian frontier. It was the wet season, and the rains were heavier than usual, turning the road and desert into an almost impassable tract of mud and rendering airfields unusable. Benghazi port was unusable on account of demolitions and frequent Axis air attacks, so that sea transport of supplies on a large scale was impracticable. Then, too, the unfavourable turn of

the war in the Far East imposed other calls upon Britain's resources.

For a week Rommel fought a rearguard action before El Agheila; then, on Jan. 21, he counter-attacked, advancing towards Jedabia, which he took on the 23rd. A confused battle raged for some days in the triangle Jedabia-Antelat-Saunnu. On the 28th the real enemy offensive began: from Regima, 20 miles E. of Benghazi, an Axis tank force pushed on to cut the coast road N. of the town; another enemy force made progress in the Msus area, while a third gained ground from the 7th Indian Infantry Brigade at Benghazi itself, which was evacuated on the 29th. Derna fell on Feb. 3, and a few days later Rommel's forces held the entire Cyrenaica "bulge" (see map, p. 1560). In the region of Mekili-Tmimi and Gazala the Eighth Army put up a strong resistance, and for three months there was a lull while both sides built up strength.

The British line was composed of a series of "boxes," the main ones being at Gazala, "Knightsbridge"—in a bare desert waste—Bir Hacheim and El Adem, with Tobruk as the chief. These boxes were one to two miles square, strongly gunned, and provisioned to withstand a siege. A deep minefield stretched from the sea to a point about 30 miles inland to cover them, and each was ringed around with its own minefield. Three British tank brigades traversed the area between boxes. General N. M. Ritchie had under his command about 130,000 men and probably 500 tanks; Rommel's forces were about the same.

Afrika Korps Attacks

On May 26, Rommel opened a major attack—passing S. of Bir Hacheim, then moving N. towards Acroma, El Duda and Sidi Rezegh. North of Acroma, Axis forces reached the coastal escarpment. The enemy attempted a landing here from the sea, but was driven off. The British 1st and 7th Armoured Divisions, aided by our heavy tank brigades in the area, checked the enemy. East of Bir Hacheim the 3rd Indian Motor Brigade Group was overborne after exacting a heavy price for this setback.

On May 27 other Axis forces attacked the northern front of our main positions S. of Gazala. The attempted break-through was foiled by the 1st S. African Division. Until the 30th there was heavy fighting over the area from Acroma in the N. to Bir Hacheim, 40 miles to the S., and from El Adem to our minefields 20 miles to the W. The protracted battle expended the enemy's supplies and water, and he retired, breaking two gaps in our minefields—one along the line of the Capuzzo road and the other 10 miles to the S. (see map in p. 2335). In between the gaps was the area held by an infantry brigade from the south of England; it fiercely resisted the enemy's attempt to pass his transport through the ranks, and for three days all our aircraft were turned on to make low-level attacks on enemy armour and transport trying to get through. By the night of May 31 Rommel had withdrawn much of his armour and many motor vehicles through one or other of the gaps, and he then fortified the openings against our attack by bringing up many anti-tank guns.

The enemy had fought himself to a standstill, but so, too, had the Eighth Army. On June 2 Rommel gained a forward post in our minefield area, after overrunning the 150th Brigade. Ritchie counter-attacked next day, but was met with a counter-stroke and had to withdraw, suffering considerable losses. Now Rommel concentrated against the box at Bir Hacheim, held by the Fighting French under General Koenig. The box was held for 16 days of almost continuous fighting; Koenig refused several demands for his surrender, and only on the direct order of General Ritchie did he evacuate the position, on the night of June 10. The Axis forces thus released joined others in a five-day battle in the Knightsbridge–Acroma region. On the 13th, after two days of ding-dong actions which left both parties equal, there was a British reverse; some 30 of our tanks were lost in a head-on clash with the enemy armour, and during the next few days we lost another 170. Rommel's own losses had been heavy, but with the battlefield in his hands he was able to salvage and repair many of his tanks, while ours were not recoverable.

Loss of Tobruk

Ritchie decided to withdraw his forces from Gazala. Covered by the 1st Armoured Division, the 50th (Northumbrian) Division and the 1st S. Africans got away to join him E. of Tobruk. Abandonment of Sidi Rezegh and El Adem was announced on June 17; all the boxes except Tobruk had fallen, and the Eighth Army retired to the Egyptian frontier, two enemy columns following them until held up near Halfaya. After a heavy air attack the enemy on June 20 broke through the Tobruk perimeter at El Duda; by the late afternoon the main positions had fallen, though here and there fighting continued until late next day. Tobruk surrendered early on June 21.

It had been hoped to make a stand of ten days on the Halfaya line, but on June 23 the Eighth Army withdrew from Sollum and Sidi Omar. The same day Ritchie was relieved of his command, and Auchinleck took over personal direction in his place. By the 28th the Eighth Army was fighting before Mersa Matruh, but the evacuation of this base was announced on the 29th. Only at El Alamein, 60 miles from Alexandria, was it possible to make a prolonged stand. Here, strongly reinforced by Dominion and other troops from Palestine Auchinleck checked Rommel's advance. The enemy attacked in strength on July 2; Auchinleck struck at his flank, and after heavy fighting Rommel withdrew, leaving our positions intact.

At the time of the Tobruk disaster Mr. Churchill was at Washington, where the decision had already been taken to send an American army and a strong British contingent to occupy French North-West Africa. Meanwhile, however, the Desert Army had been driven back to El Alamein and had lost (including the Tobruk force) 80,000 men; the Delta, the Nile valley and the Suez Canal were all in jeopardy. At the same time the German attack in the Caucasus seemed to menace the Caspian bases and the vital oilfields of Baku, Iraq and Persia. In this somewhat desperate situation plans were made to resist Rommel's impending attack and to regain the initiative in Egypt by a major battle. Six weeks later Mr. Churchill, visiting Cairo en route to Moscow, set in train the operations that were to start the Eighth Army once more on its triumphant march westward. Then he went on to his momentous conference with Premier Stalin.

The Russo-German Conflict

In order to afford a clearer view of the Russian operations we print in page 2355 a large map which indicates (1) the approximate battle line as it was in Nov.–Dec., 1941; (2) the line at the end of June 1942, showing Russian gains in the winter offensive and the brief summer counter-offensive by our Allies; and (3) the battle line in mid-October 1942. Insets show the Leningrad, Voronezh and Stalingrad areas on larger scale. The opening of 1942 saw the Russian winter offensive continuing in full progress along the entire front. Gradually the enemy salients to the N.W. and S.W. of Moscow were smoothed out. Malo Yaroslavets was retaken on Jan. 2 (see map, p. 2053).

Mozhaisk was reoccupied on the 19th, removing the threat to Moscow. In this sector the enemy withdrew to Gzhatsk. Farther north, though Rzhev could not be reduced, it was almost encircled. Other Soviet forces captured in turn Peno, Andreapol, Toropets and Kholm.

In the Leningrad sector also things went well for the Russians, who built a motor road over ice-bound Lake Ladoga, along which food, medical supplies and munitions were taken into the great northern city. Concurrently the defenders made frequent and vigorous attacks on the German line of investment E. and S. of Leningrad; wedges were driven deep into the enemy positions around Schlusselburg.

Far to the south there was heavy fighting on the Kerch and Sevastopol fronts; Kerch had been retaken by Soviet forces at the end of December; Sevastopol was invested and under intermittent attack. By the end of January the Russians were engaging the enemy at Orel, Kursk and Kharkov, but lacked the strength to penetrate the German defences, though Timoshenko captured Lozovaya on Jan. 22.

Wintry weather slowed down operations to local conflicts on both sides. The Germans suffered badly from the cold, for which they had not the proper clothing or equipment. Soviet forces included troops specially trained for winter combat and also comprised large numbers of Cossacks provided with ample artillery and armoured vehicles. Moreover, the Russian mechanical vehicles, from locomotives to tanks and lorries, were designed (or had been modified) for cold-weather working. By the end of March the thaw had brought about a lull in the fighting, and it was not until the beginning of May that important operations were resumed.

German Summer Offensive

The territory regained in the Russian winter counter-offensive is shown in the opposite page. The vital sector in the German summer campaign was that of Kharkov (south-western front), where Marshal Timoshenko was in supreme command—opposed on the German side by Field-Marshal von Bock. On May 11, 1942, the enemy attacked Soviet positions in the Kerch peninsula. Backed by a very large concentration of aircraft, the Germans were soon able to overwhelm the Kerch garrison, the remnants of which were evacuated on the 23rd. Opposite Kharkov Timoshenko had meanwhile begun a forestalling offensive (May 12) to upset enemy plans in this sector; thrusting across the upper and middle Donets, Soviet troops took Byelgorod and Lozovaya and pushed on towards Krasnograd (see map in p. 2267). The enemy made many counter-attacks, which culminated in a serious one from the Izyum area (on the 17th) which brought the Russian advance to a halt.

Donets crossings in the Russian rear fell into enemy hands, and by the day when, farther south, Kerch had to be abandoned (May 23) a general withdrawal across the Donets was in progress. Rallying behind that river, Soviet troops stood for a while. The Germans claimed that they had taken 250,000 prisoners, and that the Kharkov battle had ended. Timoshenko's effort may have delayed the opening of the main enemy offensive and attracted northward some of von Bock's troops destined for the invasion of the Caucasus, but at a heavy cost in Russian lives. In the Crimea, on June 5, the



AXIS DRIVE TOWARDS VOLGA AND CAUCASUS

This map shows the front in December 1941 (broken line), and the position after the Russian winter offensive (continuous line). For the sake of clearness, and to give a more complete picture of the German offensive which opened in its fullness in June 1942, the great belt of territory won by the Axis armies up to mid-October 1942 (stretching from Orel to the foothills of the Caucasus) is also shown (dotted line). Insets: Leningrad area; Voronezh region; and the great assault against Stalingrad.

By courtesy of "Free Europe"

Germans now began the final month-long assault upon Sevastopol, which ended with the evacuation of Soviet forces on July 3. In the Kharkov sector the enemy launched a heavy attack across the Donetz on June 11; on the 26th the U.S.S.R. announced a withdrawal and the loss of the railway junction at Kupyansk, on the Oskol river (a tributary of the Donetz and a rallying line).

Not till the end of June (28th) did the main German offensive materialize—on the Kursk front, directed E. towards Voronezh on the Don. By the fourth day, despite successful encounters in which the Russians destroyed many tanks with their new anti-tank rifle, the defending line had been breached, and by July 7 the battle was raging at the approaches to Voronezh. To the S. the Russian line on the Oskol had been turned, and Staryi Oskol had been evacuated.

In the main the enemy was checked along the Don, though he made certain crossings and occupied part of Voronezh. He was unable to get width enough to deploy in force, and the Russians still held part of the west bank of the river. In view of this hold-up most of the German Kursk army wheeled S. between Oskol and Don, cutting the railway between Moscow and Rostov. Soviet troops, their N. flank turned and their S. flank threatened, withdrew towards the lower Don.

At Sevastopol, between June 7 and July 3, 1942, Soviet casualties were 11,385 killed, 21,099 wounded and 8,300 missing. Enemy losses during this period were estimated at about 150,000. Elsewhere on the long front little of note happened, though diversionary attacks had been made towards Orel and Rzhev, and both sides had made local thrusts in the Leningrad area.

The Sea Affair

BRITAIN's aid to Russia had mainly taken the form of a stream of supplies of all kinds, transported at great risk and peril through Arctic waters to far northern ports. From advanced German naval and air bases on the Norwegian coast our convoys could be kept under continual attack. At the end of March enemy surface craft harassed a convoy but were repelled, three U-boats being damaged. Of the escort, the cruiser "Trinidad" and the destroyer "Eclipse" sustained slight damage. Again, from April 30 until May 2, another convoy bound for Russia and one returning were attacked; on the first day a U-boat torpedoed the cruiser "Edinburgh," which, with steering gear disabled, was taken in tow. Next day she was attacked by three enemy destroyers, of which she sank one and damaged another; after a German torpedo hit had caused further damage she was sunk by one of our warships.

During the critical months of peril in the Pacific Germany and Italy intensified the

U-boat war in the west, so as to prevent as far as possible any diversion of Allied Naval strength eastward. The break-out of the German warships from Brest on the night of Feb. 11-12 may have been intended to strengthen the attack on Russian convoys, but could just as well have been designed to help Japan by tying down large British forces. The battleships "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" and the heavy cruiser "Prinz Eugen" steamed out of Brest after dark with a strong escort and protected further by a huge air umbrella that was reinforced from shore bases as they made their way along the Channel.

Despite attacks by our aircraft, destroyers and M.T.B.s the enemy warships escaped into the North Sea. The "Scharnhorst" was later seen in the Kiel docks. The "Prinz Eugen," severely damaged by the submarine "Trident" off Norway on Feb. 23, was then towed by the enemy into Trondheim; she was attacked again when she left (May 14), and off S. Norway our aircraft secured hits with torpedoes. On March 9 the German battleship "Tirpitz" was attacked by Fleet Air Arm planes after leaving Trondheim but escaped under a smoke screen. (She was attacked and damaged by a Russian submarine in the Barents Sea on July 8.)

The finest traditions of the Royal Navy were upheld in the successful operations against the submarine base of St. Nazaire on March 28. H.M. destroyer "Campbeltown" (former American destroyer "Buchanan"), packed with explosives, was taken alongside the lock gate leading to the U-boat basin and there blown up (see p. 2250). Commando troops landed and carried out demolitions. The Naval force was commanded by Cmdr. R. E. D. Ryder, R.N., who was awarded the V.C. for his services. A V.C. went also to Lieut.-Cmdr. S. H. Beattie, R.N., who commanded the "Campbeltown"; he was a prisoner in German hands when he heard of the award. A third V.C. was awarded posthumously to A.B. W. A. Savage, gun-layer of a pom-pom on the motor gunboat which formed Cmdr. Ryder's H.Q. during the action. The leader of the Commando and special service troops, Lieut.-Col. A. C. Newman, was taken prisoner with others of his party after a hard fight.

Convoys for Malta

At Malta, under incessant air attacks intended to engage our aircraft and prevent interference with Axis convoys to N. Africa, things were going hard; if resistance was to be maintained it was imperative that convoys with food and other supplies should get through to the island. On March 22 an Allied convoy from Alexandria was attacked by four Italian cruisers, which the escort drove off. Later the enemy returned, this time with battleships, of which one was torpedoed; two enemy destroyers were damaged. Allied casualties were one cruiser and three destroyers damaged; one merchant ship was sunk.

Another attempt to aid the island was made in the middle of June; from Alexandria a convoy sailed under the command of Rear-Admiral Vian, while from Gibraltar another set out under Vice-Admiral Curteis. The eastern convoy encountered two Littorio battleships, four cruisers and eight destroyers. One large Italian cruiser was bombed from the air and later attacked by a submarine which finished it off. On the other side of the account, we lost the cruiser "Hermione," the British destroyers "Bedouin," "Hasty," "Grove" and "Airedale," the Polish destroyer "Kujawiak" and 30 aircraft. Besides the large cruiser mentioned above, the enemy also lost two destroyers and a submarine. The western convoy, though it met with constant air attack, had less naval opposition, but even so only some of the supply ships reached Malta. By this time General Auchinleck was making a fighting retreat in Libya, and the fall of Tobruk came on June 21. The Royal Navy helped to cover the British withdrawal along the coast.

Landings in Madagascar

British Naval forces under Rear-Admiral E. N. Syfret, with troops commanded by Major-General R. G. Sturges (Royal Marines), seized the northern regions of Madagascar on May 5-7 (see Chapter 225). Owing to the risk of Japan taking possession of this important island, which commanded the Mozambique Channel and lay across our vital sea communications with Egypt and the East, it had been decided to land troops and establish control. Marines from H.M.S. "Ramillies," lying off Courrier Bay, were transported around the north of the island by the destroyer "Anthony" and landed at Antsirane, where they took the defences in the rear. The main assault force landed in Ambararata Bay and fought their way across to Diego Suarez. At a cost of 300 British casualties the positions were captured, and British warships were able to enter Diego Suarez Bay. In the autumn operations under Gen. Sir W. Platt became necessary owing to the refusal of the Governor-General, M. Annet, to collaborate. But the action already taken sufficed to prevent the danger of hostile submarines attacking Allied shipping from bases in Madagascar—and the even greater peril of Japanese occupation.

U-boats Switch to Western Atlantic

With the entry of the U.S.A. into the war the shipping front at once widened to include the whole of the N. American sea-board and opened up an immense new area of operations for U-boats. In the middle of January 1942 a Panamanian ship was torpedoed 60 miles off Long Island; two American tankers and two merchantmen were sunk off the east coast of the U.S.A. By the middle of February 25 ships had been lost in these waters. An offensive was opened against tankers from the Gulf ports and the West Indies; an enemy submarine shelled Aruba, off the entrance to the Gulf of Venezuela, where are the world's largest oil refineries. Seven tankers in the vicinity were attacked and three of them sunk.

Many U-boat attacks were made in the Caribbean, 4,000 miles from the enemy base at Brest. By Feb. 28, 114 ships had been attacked in the Western Atlantic—proving, as the First Lord of the Admiralty said some months later, a grievous drain on the shipping tonnage of the United Nations. Throughout March the sinkings went on and then decreased, but in May the U.S. Naval authorities were obliged to introduce the convoy system along the eastern seaboard. At the beginning of February Brazil took over the 90,000 tons of Axis shipping sheltering in her ports; on the 15th the first of many Brazilian ships to be attacked was torpedoed off the Atlantic coast. (Brazil declared war upon Germany and Italy on Aug. 22.) Ships of Uruguay, Argentina, Venezuela, Chile and Mexico also were sunk.

On June 23 it was announced that losses in the Western Atlantic since Dec. 7 had totalled 290—130 off the U.S. east coast, 108 in the Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico, 35 off Canada, and 17 off S. America. The great efforts of American shipbuilders to redress the balance have been alluded to in an earlier section; while Britain concentrated on warships the U.S.A. built up an enormous tonnage of cargo vessels. Small airships were used off the American coast to spot and attack (with depth charges) enemy submarines.

At the other side of the Atlantic, aircraft of Coastal Command played the major part in the aerial protection of British and Allied merchantmen, and in the offensive against air and sea raiders on shipping routes. In three years of war its aircraft flew 55,000,000 miles, escorted 4,947 merchant ships, and attacked 587 U-boats. Moreover, Bomber Command was directly engaged in the same offensive, for the British Secretary for Air stated, in March 1942, that 40 per cent of its total effort during the year just elapsed had been expended on targets chosen by the Royal Navy. An example of such operations was the daylight attack by 12 Lancaster bombers on the M.A.N. marine Diesel engine works at Augsburg, April 17. Ten per cent of the personnel losses of Bomber Command were incurred in mine-laying, a routine task of primary importance, which cost the Axis 183 ships in six months.

Thousand-Bomber Raids

During the year the Royal Air Force gained the initiative in the air battles over Western Europe. Heavier bombers and faster fighters, coupled with the development of new tactics, transformed the pattern of aerial warfare. Under heavy and repeated blows the enemy had to abandon the use of Brest or any other port on the French Atlantic coast for his capital ships. In saturation attacks such as that made on Luebeck on March 28–29 the very heavy bombing was concentrated into the shortest possible time, so that the defence was overwhelmed. Later raids of this description occupied as short a period as half an hour. Three hundred tons of H.E. bombs were dropped on Luebeck, including 17 missiles of 4,000 lb. During the next two months towns in the Ruhr were targets of similar heavy attacks; in April four successive raids were made on Rostock (750 tons of bombs in all).

Then came the experiment of the 1,000-bomber raids; 1,047 bombers were sent to Cologne on May 30–31, and they dropped 1,500 tons in 90 minutes. Essen (June 1) and Bremen (June 25) were raided in like manner. Tactical difficulties, however, allowed such large formations to be dispatched only at infrequent intervals, and an experiment it remained. During daylight raids by heavy bombers were another innovation. They flew low for many miles across enemy country and then rose over the target to the minimum height from which it was safe for the aircraft to drop its heavy bombs. Factories working for the enemy in occupied France were also attacked: the Renault motor vehicle and tank factory at Billancourt (near Paris) on March 3-4; the Matford works at Poissy on April 1-2 and 3-4; later the Gnome-Rhone, Goodrich and Thomson-Houston establishments at Gennevilliers.

Fighter Arm Becomes an Offensive Weapon

As part of Britain's long-term policy of destroying Germany's communications, aircraft of Fighter Command attacked locomotives and barges, or blew up trains loaded with ammunition, in France and the Low Countries. In pairs or in small formations, Spitfires, Hurricanes and Whirlwinds harassed enemy troops on the roads or interfered with supply convoys. Then, too, some of these aircraft were adapted for the dual function of fighter-bomber, acting with precision and success against ships as well as land targets. All these were low-level attacks,

in which special training had perfected our fighter squadrons.

In the air defence of Britain Fighter Command developed its tactics so successfully that enemy raiders were almost driven from the skies save for "sneak" raiders which came in under cloud cover, dropped their few bombs, and flew out again all in one swoop.

An enormous advance in Army Cooperation air tactics was witnessed in 1942; the obsolescent two-seater aircraft hitherto employed were replaced by North American Mustangs—single-seater, 400 m.p.h., well armed—which were employed for the time being on offensive sweeps over Northern France.

Air War Upon Britain

In the first three months of 1942 the casualties from German air raids upon Britain were only 250 (155 persons killed). Two-thirds of them occurred in January, when comparatively severe attacks were made on Merseyside and East Coast towns. Otherwise the raids were light, and made by only small numbers of the enemy. London on March 17 had its first alert for nine months, and then it was the case of a single enemy aircraft spying out the land. In the second three months the Luftwaffe, stung into angry and fierce retaliation by the R.A.F.'s very heavy bombing of the Baltic port of Luebeck (March 28–29), and of Rostock (nights of April 22–24, 24–25, 25–26 and 26–27), began a series of raids on English cathedral cities—Exeter (twice), Bath (twice), Norwich and York (April 27–28). Then, after another raid on Norwich (April 29–30), the enemy next evening made a number of small attacks on N.E. coastal targets. A few days later (May 4) Exeter was bombed again. Air raid casualties in April were 1,935 (938 killed or missing).

After a lull for nearly a month the Luftwaffe struck again—this time at Canterbury, on the last night of May. About 30 aircraft were employed, and the Germans called this a reprisal for the British raid upon Cologne the night before; it should be noted, however, that on the night of May 29–30 the same number of enemy aircraft had been foiled in the attempt to penetrate the defences on the S.E. coast and had paid for it with seven of their bombers. Five others were lost out of a smaller formation which raided the same area on the night of June 2. May casualties were 824 (399 killed), and those for June came to 667 (300 killed). Towards the end of June there were sharp raids on Southampton, Norwich (twice), Weston-super-Mare, and towns in the Midlands. The enemy's losses over Britain were severe—126 aircraft for the six months, a hundred of them in the last three months.

On the Home Front

During the months of comparative freedom from enemy air attacks the air and ground defences were perfected and the Civil Defence Services tightened up. In April Mr. Herbert Morrison (Home Secretary) stated that about one-third of full-time Civil Defence workers and about one-sixth of National Fire Service personnel would be released for work in war factories. Arrangements were also made for closer collaboration between the Fire Service and the Home Guard. Compulsory enrolment in the Home Guard was introduced in March, and later the force took over new duties which included coastal defence and the manning of anti-aircraft batteries. H.M. the King became its Colonel-in-Chief in May.

The call for man-power was insistent. Women of the 1921 class registered in January; it was made compulsory for women over 20 and under 31 to obtain employment only through a labour exchange. Next month, in order to meet the demands of the Women's Auxiliary Services, women of 20–30 were withdrawn from most retail trades. In May, women of the 1918 and 1919 classes were called up; while at the end of June four more age groups of women and three of men were warned of impending registration later in the year. All told, by the end of the half-year, some 20,000,000 men and women had been registered since the outbreak of war (nearly 8,000,000 women by the end of May).

Thanks to wise measures of control and distribution, and the granting of subsidies totalling £100,000,000 per annum, the cost of food had been kept stable. The National Loaf was introduced in April, made from flour of 85 per cent extraction; the sale of "white" bread was made illegal. Condensed milk and cereals were brought under the "points" scheme of rationing. Meals in restaurants were restricted to three courses in June, and the price of such meals was limited to 5s. (plus house charges in certain cases). Soap was rationed in February; the basic petrol ration was abolished at the end of June.

For the new clothing period 60 coupons were issued, to last 14 months from June 1. There were restrictions on the number of buttons and pockets for men's garments; no turn-ups to trousers; no double-breasted coats. "Utility" garments for men and for women, controlled as to price and quality, were introduced.

A sharp fall in coal production gave cause for uneasiness. A Government scheme for fuel rationing (prepared by Sir William Beveridge) met with such opposition that it was dropped; instead, users were exhorted to economize by aiming at a certain fuel target which varied according to the household and the house or apartment, and also to the region, north or south. In June, after investigation by a Board, the Government accepted certain claims by the Miners' Federation for increased wages. (An increase of 3s. per ton in the price of coal at the pithead was authorized as from July 1.)

Britain's fifth war Budget, introduced on April 14, 1942, envisaged a total expenditure of £5,286,000,000, of which £4,500,000,000 would be needed for war expenditure. Under the Lease-Lend scheme, aid to the value of £100,000,000 per month was coming in from the United States, while the Canadian Government had furnished free supplies totalling £225,000,000. Here are some of the increases in taxation made necessary by the estimated revenue deficit of 47 per cent (out of the £4,300,000,000 to be found in Britain existing taxes were expected to yield £2,244,000,000): tobacco, 10s. per lb.; beer, 2d. per pint; whisky, 4s. 8d. per bottle. The entertainments tax was increased, and those non-essential or luxury articles already paying a one-third tax were now to be subject to a two-thirds impost. Farms with an annual value of more than £100 per annum were to be taxed in future on their actual profits instead of on annual value.

Parliament Grows Restive

The nation's uneasiness at the trend of the war in the Far East was reflected in Parliament by sundry challenges to the Premier's conduct of affairs. Mr. Churchill had returned on January 20 from his momentous visit to Washington. A three-day debate (January 27–29) ended with a vote of 464–1 against a "no-confidence" motion. As a result of the debate a Minister of War Production was appointed on February 4: Lord Beaverbrook, who transferred to this post from the Supply Ministry, held it only for a fortnight, when he was succeeded by Mr. Oliver Lyttelton (till then Minister of State at Cairo). This last change took place in the Cabinet reconstruction of mid-February. Sir Stafford Cripps, former Ambassador to Moscow, became Lord Privy Seal and Leader of the Commons, with a seat in the Cabinet. Mr. Attlee was the new Secretary for Dominion Affairs. The new Cabinet had seven members instead of nine; those dropped were Sir Kingsley Wood, Chancellor of the Exchequer (who kept his office), and Mr. Arthur Greenwood (Minister without Portfolio), whose post was not filled.

Not long after there were more changes: Sir James Grigg, in a stride, left his Civil Service post of Permanent Under-Secretary at the War Office to become Secretary for War—in place of Captain Margesson, for whom no other post was found. Others dropped out were Lord Reith, Minister of Works; Lt.-Col. Moore-Brabazon, Minister of Aircraft Production; Lord Moyne, Colonial Secretary; and Lord Hankey, Paymaster-General. Lord Reith was succeeded by Lord Portal; while Col. Llewellin—appointed President of the Board of Trade as recently as February 4—now became Minister of Aircraft Production, being followed at the Board of Trade by Mr. Hugh Dalton. In a speech on February 24 the Premier claimed that these changes had formed a more tensely braced and compact Administration to meet new difficulties and dangers.

The Indian Deadlock

A few weeks after assuming the leadership of the House of Commons, where he had made an excellent impression, Sir Stafford Cripps volunteered to take to India the British Government's draft proposals for the grant, as soon as possible after the war had ended, of full Dominion status under a constitution to be framed by Indians themselves. Sir Stafford arrived in India on March 22 (see Chapter 223), and had discussions with leaders of the parties. These proved fruitless, and the breakdown of negotiations was announced on April 10; no party had accepted the British Government's proposals; the Congress Party, key to the whole controversy, wanted nothing less than immediate complete control over the Government of India. The impossibility of a satisfactory solution in these circumstances was underlined when, on August 7, a session of the All-India Congress Committee passed a resolution calling for a mass movement of non-violence. (It was as the result of this resolution that Gandhi and other Congress Party leaders were arrested by the Government of India next day.)

The half-year ended, as it had begun, on a sombre note; at the end of May the Germans had opened their offensive in Libya, and soon the Eighth Army was in retreat. Tobruk fell on June 21 and Mersa Matruh on the 29th. At the end of June Rommel's forces were facing our own at the El Alamein line. Mr. Churchill was then at Washington, having left England on June 17, and it was Mr. Attlee who told the House of Commons of these disasters. The Premier, when he returned to London on June 27, found himself faced with another "no-confidence" motion, tabled this time by Sir John Wardlaw-Milne and 18 other Members. The two-day debate opened on July 1, and next day the motion was lost by 475 votes to 25. Had security considerations permitted Mr. Churchill to tell the House of plans and projects in the making (and even at that critical time in operation) to restore and immeasurably to improve the war situation in Africa, he would have been spared the inevitable pain which the censure motion must have inflicted.

HOME FRONT IN BRITAIN AS VICTORY COMES WITHIN SIGHT

The second half of 1942 saw a complete reversal of the tide of war in Egypt and Libya, and witnessed the surge of the Allied armies westward to victory in Africa. Mr. Churchill flew to Moscow to confer with Premier Stalin, and in the Russian capital were laid the plans which later bore fruit in the great achievements of Soviet troops at Stalingrad

After the hammer-and-tongs debate in the House of Commons at the beginning of July, which ended with the Government being accorded a majority of 451 on a motion of "no-confidence," there was a comparative lull in the criticisms of Mr. Churchill, his Ministerial team, and their methods of conducting the war. Some at least of the more gloomy prophecies were falsified when within a week or two Rommel's onslaught on the British lines at El Alamein was beaten off, and it seemed likely that after all Egypt would not be lost. The increasing air offensive against Germany, and the diminution in the German aerial attacks on Britain, added to the public's mood of regained confidence.

But if the news from the Near East was somewhat better, if the British people could rejoice in knowing that at long last we were hitting back effectively at the enemy's cities, there was deep and widespread concern over the apparently irresistible progress of the German arms in Russia. During those summer weeks Hitler got very near to Moscow, and it was not to be wondered at that there were many in Britain who refused to believe that in supplying munitions, tanks and planes to Russia we were doing all that could be done to assist a very valiant and now dangerously hard-pressed ally. So up and down the country the demand was voiced ever more clamantly for the opening of a Second Front in the West—for a great military stroke which should make it imperative for Hitler to withdraw a large number of divisions from Russia to meet an attack on the "European fortress" from the rear.

No doubt it was to inform himself of the Soviet Union's actual position, of its requirements and how they might be satisfied—and also perhaps to explain to Stalin just why a Second Front, for which, by now, the Russian publicists were loudly calling, could not be established—that Mr. Churchill decided to visit Moscow as soon as Parliament had risen for the summer recess. Flying first to Egypt, where he met Field-Marshal Smuts, the Prime Minister proceeded by way of Palestine, Iraq and Persia to Moscow, where he arrived on August 12, 1942. From that date until August 15 he had daily consultations with Mr. Stalin, Mr. Molotov and their colleagues, and among others who took part in the conference were Mr. Averill Harriman, special representative of President Roosevelt, and General Sir Archibald Wavell, C.-in-C. India.

Moscow Meeting

At the conclusion of the meeting an announcement, issued in London and Moscow on August 17, stated that "a number of decisions were reached covering the field of the war against Hitlerite Germany and her associates in Europe," and that "the discussions, carried on in an atmosphere of cordiality and complete sincerity, provided an opportunity of reaffirming the existence of close friendship and understanding between the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States, in entire accordance with the Allied relationship existing between them."

This was Mr. Churchill's first meeting with Mr. Stalin, and in the House of Commons on September 8 the Premier, when recounting the story of his Moscow visit, described the Russian

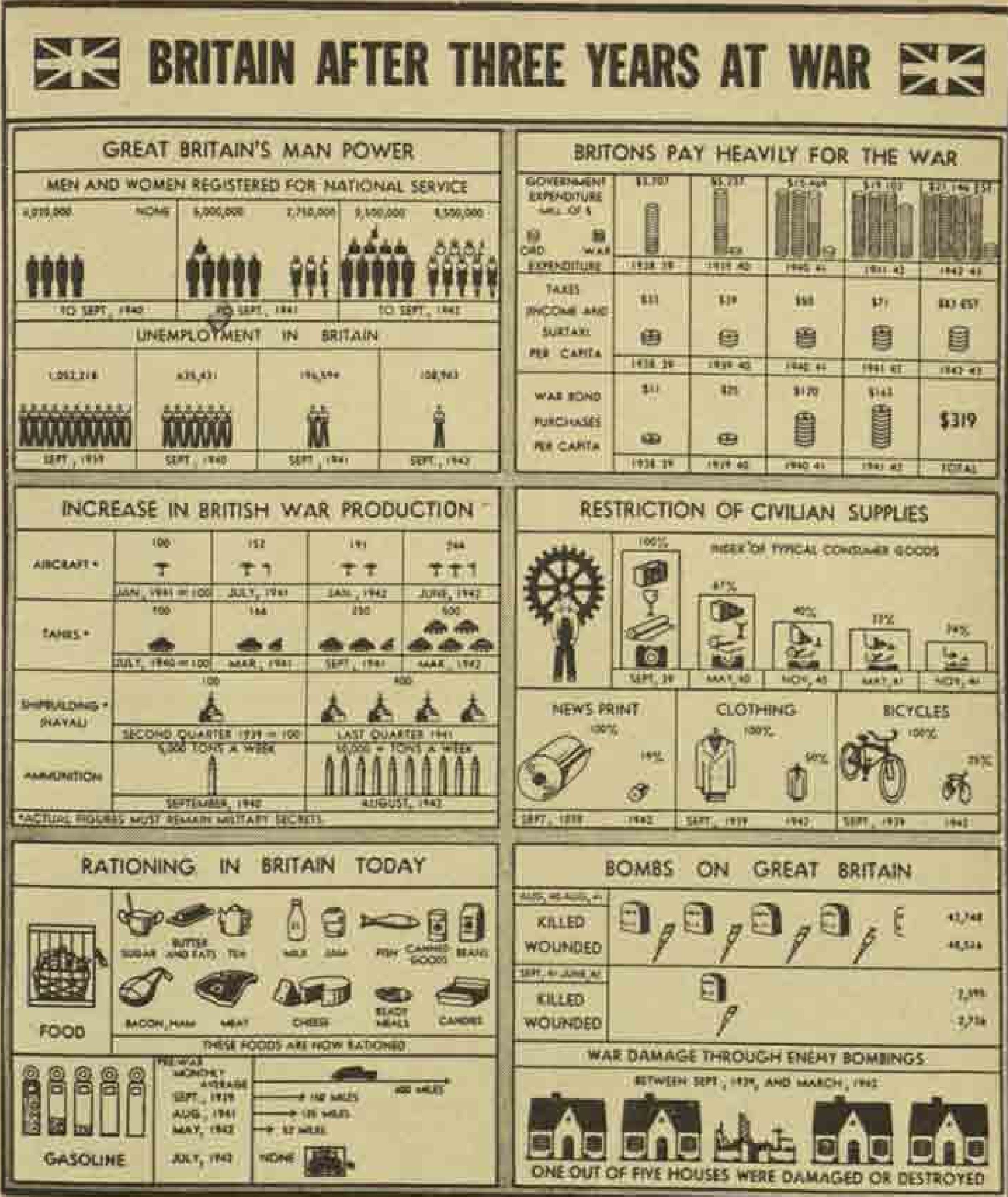
WHEN THE BELLS RANG OUT FOR VICTORY

Church bells were rung throughout the United Kingdom on Sunday, November 15, 1942, to celebrate the British victory in Egypt; below, right, bellringers in Westminster Abbey. Since June 1940 the bells of the land had been silent—their voice reserved for a signal of enemy invasion; soldiers inspected them and kept them in working order: below, left, overhauling bells hung in a churchyard, in a case where there was no belfry.

Photos, Associated Press; G.P.U.







EXPLAINING BRITAIN'S THREE-YEAR WAR EFFORT TO AMERICA

This pictorial chart was issued for distribution in the United States, to show at a glance some of Britain's sacrifices and achievements. The official exchange rate at the time was 4/10d. per U.S. dollar, but if the rate is taken at 5/- it will enable a near enough approximation to be made to the American figures shown. Thus the figure for taxes per head increased from $33 (£8 5s.) in 1938–39 to $71 (£17 15s.) in 1941–42. The growth of war production is indicated by percentages of the earlier outputs, since actual figures cannot be disclosed.

Diagram issued by the British Ministry of Information



'A WORLD FOUNDED ON COMMON JUSTICE AND FAIR PLAY'

This was the kind of post-war world, said Field-Marshal Smuts, which the Allies intended to build, not one founded on political shibboleths. Standing beneath a statue of the great Queen Elizabeth, he is seen addressing Members of both Houses of Parliament on October 21, 1942. Behind the Field-Marshal sits Mr. Lloyd George, Chairman of the meeting; on the right are Mr. Winston Churchill and Lord Simon

Photo, Keystone

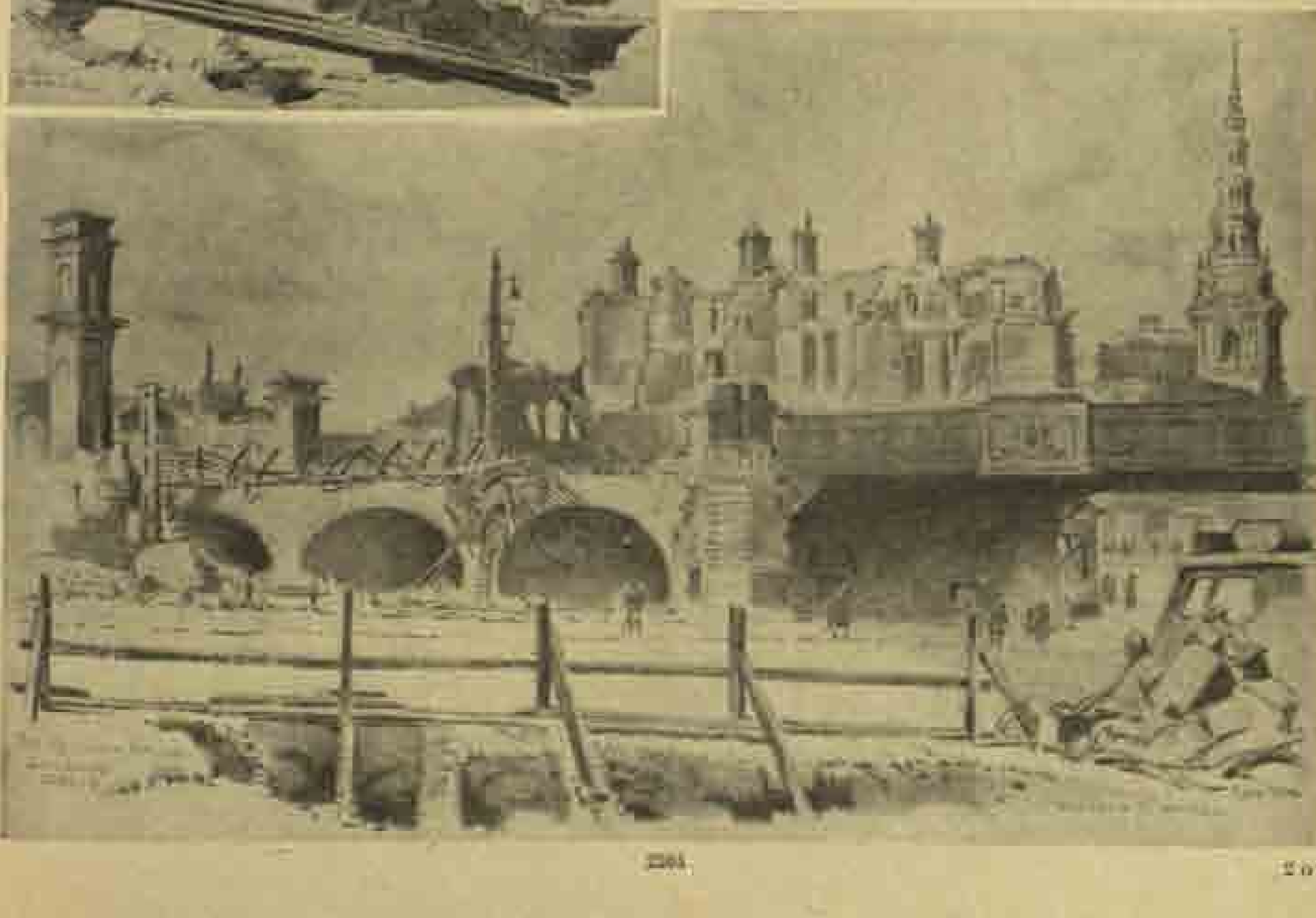




LONDON SCARRED BUT DAUNTLESS

The ordeal of London in the air raids of 1940 and 1941 inspired many artists. Left, St. Paul's, seen across the wreckage of Paternoster Row. Below, the railway bridge over Ludgate Hill with the burnt-out shell of St. Bride's tower on the right. Above, a bombed-out family.

Painting by Ethel Gabain; pencil drawings by Vincent R. Daniel





TANK ASSEMBLY AT A MINISTRY OF SUPPLY FACTORY IN 1942

Considerable criticism was directed at the policy behind Britain's tank production, though much had been accomplished in difficult circumstances. Types turned out included the Covenanter, Crusader, Matilda and Valentine, while the summer of 1940 gave birth to a heavier design, the Churchill, primarily intended for defence against invasion. (See illus., p. 2025.) In production by May 1941, it was later modified and gave a good account of itself in the North African campaign. By June 1942, 4,500 tanks had been sent to the Middle East and more than 2,000 to Russia.

Photo, Sport & General

leader as a man of "inexhaustible courage and will-power, a man direct and even blunt in speech . . . of a deep, cool wisdom and complete absence of illusions of any kind. I believe I made him feel that we were good and faithful comrades in this war. . . ."

On his way back from Moscow the Premier stayed another week in the Middle East, conferring in Cairo with Generals Auchinleck and Alexander and other military chiefs. He also stopped at Teheran both going and returning, and had interviews with the Shah of Persia; and he met the King and Prime Minister of Egypt. He arrived back in London on August 24, making the journey in the same Liberator bomber in which he had flown to Russia.



While in Egypt Mr. Churchill took the opportunity of seeing for himself the state of the Eighth (or Desert) Army, which, he had reason to suppose before he left London, "was not entirely satisfactory." As a result he effected a change in the command: on August 18 it was announced that General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander had been appointed to succeed General Sir C. Auchinleck as C.-in-C. Middle East, and that Lt.-Gen. B. L. Montgomery had succeeded General Ritchie in the command of the Eighth Army. At the same time Persia and Iraq were detached from the Middle East Command and made into a new and separate command around the 10th Army, based on Basra and Baghdad.

In his review of the war situation in the House of Commons on September 8 Mr. Churchill declared his satisfaction with the new combination of General Alexander, "fresh from his brilliant uphill campaign in Burma," and General Montgomery, "one of our most accomplished soldiers." As for the displaced General Auchinleck, he was "an officer of the greatest distinction and of a character of singular elevation"; and though "he is at present, at his own request, gone on leave, it is my hope that his services may be available later on in the war."

As the Premier said, the spirit of the British and Imperial troops was admirable, but though it was the universal conviction among officers and men that they could beat the Germans, man to man and face to face, this was coupled with a sense of being baffled and of not understanding why so many misfortunes had fallen on the Army.

Tributes to Leaders

The changes in the command and the quantities of new weapons and supplies that had flowed into Egypt from Britain and America gave the Premier confidence in the Eighth Army's ability to maintain the successful defence of Egypt, and he had been strengthened in that view by the results of the heavy fighting of the previous week, when Rommel's offensive against the Alamein positions had been brought to a standstill.

When he met Field-Marshal Smuts in Cairo the Prime Minister prevailed upon him to visit Britain on his way home. On October 21, a week after his arrival in Britain, the veteran statesman and

NATION'S FOOD DRIVE SPEEDED UP

With food subsidies amounting to £147,000,000 a year, and extended rationing, the Government urged farmers to put all available land under crop cultivation. The appeal met with a whole-hearted response, and ploughing by day and night became a feature of the countryside in the autumn of 1942. Below, masked lamps enabled the tractor crews to carry on during darkness. Left, Lord Woolton, Food Minister, sees a minor (but very welcome) result of the food drive, and congratulates a smiling Land Army girl on the onion crop.

Photos, Topical and L.N.A.



soldier addressed the Lords and Commons in joint session. Much of his speech was devoted to a eulogy of Britain, the enemy of his youth.

"But for this country," he said, "the stand it made from 1939 onward, its immeasurable exertions since and up to now, its toil and sweat, its blood and tears, this world of ours might have been lost for a thousand years, and another dark age might have settled down on the spirit of man."

Then, after a masterly analysis of Hitler's aims and devilish achievements, the Field-Marshal declared that:

"At bottom this war is a new crusade, a new fight to the death for man's rights and liberties, and for the personal ideals of man's ethical and spiritual life. To the Nazi fanaticism we oppose this crusading spirit, which will not sheathe the sword till Nazidom and all its works have been purged from this fair world. And in that spirit the United Nations will march forward to victory and to the world which will follow that victory."

On the occasion of the opening of a new session of Parliament, on November 11, 1942, a few days after the successful landings in North Africa, Mr. Churchill gave a further review of the war. He replied in spirited fashion to the clamour for a Second Front, stressing the complete understanding between Britain and Russia that had been consolidated by his August visit, and reviewing the very material assistance that had already been afforded to the Soviet Union. Then followed an account of the preparations for Montgomery's great stroke at Alamein in October.

"Egypt is now clear of the enemy," he went on; "we see advancing into Cyrenaica. The speed of advance of our pursuing troops exceeds anything yet seen in the ebbs and flows of the Libyan battlefield. . . . Taken by itself the Battle of Egypt is an historic British victory, and in order to celebrate it directions are being given to ring the bells throughout the land next Sunday morning, and I should think that many who will listen to their peals will have thankful hearts."

Next, the Prime Minister made a brief reference to the North African operations so recently launched. "These remarkable transactions," he might well remark, "have already been highly beneficial to our interest and to our cause." But "we are entitled to rejoice only on the condition that we do not relax"; and in conclusion he quoted Walt Whitman's lines:

Now understand we well.
It is provided in the essence of things
That, from any fruition of success, no matter what,
Shall come forth something to make a greater struggle necessary.

While our British soldiers continued to hold Rommel in Egypt, barring the way to that magnificent prize, their "mates" at home performed prodigies of production. Probably not only the Americans, to whom he primarily addressed himself, were surprised at the facts and figures given in a broadcast by Mr. Lyttelton, Minister of Production, on August 27. Although Britain's population was only a third of America's, said Mr. Lyttelton, her work and production were at least equal to those of America. Indeed, head for head, Britain had produced in the first quarter of 1942 nearly 2½ times the volume of army munitions and about twice the weight of combat aircraft, and, in spite of the increased growth of American output, Britain was still ahead in the second quarter. And this notwithstanding difficulties not experienced in America—constant air attacks necessitating the dispersal of industries, the black-out, and bomb damage. Fifty-five out of every hundred occupied men and women—the equivalent of 40 millions in the States—were directly working for the Government, in the forces or in factories or elsewhere; and nearly all the rest were doing work which was essential to the war effort.

A few weeks later Mr. Herbert Morrison embarked on a series of speeches in which he endeavoured to do justice to the present achievement as well as to sketch the outlines of a new and better world of tomorrow. "We need not apologize to anyone for our three years' part in the war," he told his constituents at Hackney on October 30; and two days later, at Cardiff, he drew a striking picture of Britain at war, "for the enlightenment of our friends and ourselves." Our productive effort at home, he said, in its combination of intense energy with the highest order of technical skill was one of the greatest achievements in history. This small country with its 45 million people had achieved a war output which stood in the front rank of productive achievements on either side.

Its output per head was greater than that of any country in the world, enemy or ally. We welcomed with enthusiasm the tremendous output of America's shipbuilding industry, but it was still true that Britain's shipbuilding workers had an output twice as great a head as those of any other country. And Britain had not yet reached her peak. True, she was near the limit of her resources of man-power, but improvements in the organization and allocation of those resources were leading to the setting up of fresh records. Thus in September they had produced six tons of aircraft for every five tons in August.

Nation Geared to War

How tremendous had been Britain's achievement was revealed by Mr. Bevin on July 30: of the 33 million people between 14 and 65, 23,500,000 were on full-time national work. In addition, there was a host of voluntary workers, leaving fewer than 3 millions, which included children, the sick, and the aged. In June the total of women registered was brought up to nearly 8 millions. In August Mr. Morrison announced that women between 20 and 45 were to be made liable for compulsory fireguard



SIR WILLIAM BEVERIDGE, K.C.B.
Scholar and social reformer, he was the author of a Social Security Plan which aroused the widest interest. With its keynote of 'Freedom from Want,' the Beveridge Report (summarized in page 2360) outlined a social insurance scheme to cover unemployment, ill-health and disability, family allowances, and old-age pensions
Photo, Topical



NEW CABINET POST
Political problems in French North Africa made it necessary for the British Government to keep in close personal touch with the swiftly changing situation. On December 31, 1942, Mr. Harold Macmillan, Colonial Under-Secretary, became Resident Minister at Allied Headquarters, North-West Africa.
Photo, Sport & General

LONDON SCENE, 1942

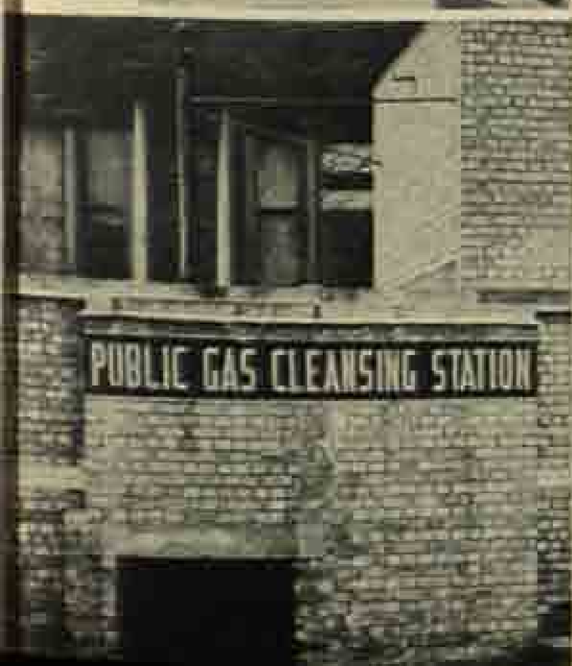
By the second half of 1942 Britain had got down to a rigid war economy, since the need for gearing the whole country to the war effort had at last been realized. The urgent appeals to save fuel, petrol and rubber led to drastic restrictions on travel facilities. London bus services were cut to a minimum after the peak periods. (1) Buses parked on the Embankment awaiting the evening rush, and (3) a notice suspending the Green Line coaches "for the duration." (2) One of the huge coal dumps established in London parks during the winter to meet possible distribution difficulties. (4) Another familiar sign was that denoting a public gas-cleansing station—in case Hitler decided to use gas. Appeals for a Second Front in the West grew as the Germans neared Moscow; (5) a Communist Party poster.

Photos, Sport & General; Planet News; Topical; "New York Times" Photos

















UTILITY GOODS FOR THE HOME

War-time concentration of industry and unavoidable limitation of manufactures caused a dearth of household goods. To remedy this, 'utility' pottery (teapot and beakers above) and enamelware were made under Government control and introduced in July 1942. A combined saucepan-kettle is seen at right.

Photos, Courtesy of Josiah Wedgwood and Sons; Sport & General

duty in areas where compulsion for men was already in force—yet another indication of the increasing part played by women in the nation's war effort. On October 22 a Royal Proclamation extended the liability for call-up (for the Services) to men who had reached the age of 18 by the previous day, although the minimum age for overseas service was kept at 19. In December 1942 the registration age for men was reduced to 17 years and 8 months, so as to facilitate the call-up of men as soon as they should reach the age of 18.

But, all the same, there were some blots on the industrial escutcheon. Figures released in the next year showed that during 1942 more working days were lost through industrial disputes than in any of the four preceding years; altogether 1,530,000 working days were lost to the national war effort, involving 349,000 workers directly and a further 107,000 indirectly. By far the most of these disputes were over wage questions, though quite a number had relation to the employment of particular classes or persons.

Then there was the chronic insufficiency of coal production. "We shall produce the coal the nation needs," promised Mr. Will Lawther, in his presidential speech at the Mineworkers' Federation in July; "to do less we cannot—it would be playing Hitler's game. . . ." Yet in August the Federation, after hearing a Government statement on the very unsatisfactory coal situation, sent an appeal to each mine to make a supreme effort to increase production immediately, since in the event of a falling-off in the output of ships, planes, tanks, etc., because of want of coal, the industry might well be charged with "criminal neglect" in the country's hour of peril. A system of bonus payments for miners was introduced during the autumn, and the public were exhorted at the same time to exercise the utmost care in the use of fuel.

"The Battle of Fuel is on!" proclaimed advertisements in every newspaper; and householders were conjured to study little diagrams from which their "Fuel Targets" might be deduced. Every individual was entitled to use with a good conscience a personal allowance of 15 "Fuel Units," whether of coal, gas, electricity or paraffin; and in addition an allowance dependent on the situation of his premises—in the North, Midlands, or South. Criticism of the scheme was loud and long, and in particular the Fuel Ministry was charged with ignorance of the fact that in England the isotherms tended to range from west to east, not north to south. On the whole, however, the scheme was welcomed as an effort to improve a steadily worsening situation.

Fall in Coal Output

But Major Lloyd George, Minister of Fuel and Power, told the House of Commons in October that during the preceding five months British coal production was running at the rate of 200 million tons annually, as compared with 230 million tons in the year ending with Dunkirk and 227 millions in 1938. What with the falling production and the greatly increased consumption, there was a gap of some 11 million tons; and the Minister's critics considered him far too optimistic in thinking that this might be filled by a joint effort of miners and public. Absenteeism, it was generally believed, was rife in the coalfields, though the reasons for it were often better than supposed.

The miners, for their part, alleged that the real trouble was their lack of numbers; so many of the younger and most vigorous men had been drafted to the Forces that it was impossible for an ageing body of workers to maintain their

RATIONING OF SWEETS

Chocolates and sweets were rationed as from July 26, 1942, the amount being fixed first at 2 oz. a head per week. Four weeks later—on August 23—the ration was increased to 3 oz., at which amount it remained. For this purpose a 'Personal Ration Book' was issued, one side of which is shown here. D coupons were worth 1 oz.; E coupons were valid for 2 oz.





BUILDERS' FLYING SQUAD FOR WAR CONTRACTS

In order to speed up construction of new factories or hostels for war workers, a Ministry of Works Flying Squad went first to the scene to clear the ground, make roads, and put up temporary buildings to house the contractors' men, who could then start from scratch. Above are dormitory huts erected by the squad; they themselves were accommodated in Ministry of Works vans (seen in the foreground). *Photo, Topical*

production. Some 9,000 miners had been temporarily returned to the pits from the Forces, said the Minister on September 8; and a little later men under 25 at registration were given the right to "opt" for mining. Whatever the reason for the fall-off, the situation grew worse instead of better; and on October 31 some 3,000 representatives of the mining industry—including one from each of the 1,300 pits in the country—were called to London to hear a special appeal by the Prime Minister, supported by Major Lloyd George and Field-Marshal Smuts. The Premier, it was revealed months later, when his speech was published, was exceedingly frank, and his revelations and appeal must have had a powerful effect.

In spite of the terrific upheaval caused by the industrial mobilization, in spite of the black-out, rationing and the rest, the nation's health continued to be excellent. Indeed, said Mr. Ernest Brown, the Minister of Health, it was in many ways better after 1,000 days of war than in peacetime. There were only two black spots: the steady diminution in tuberculosis had been interrupted by wartime conditions—the black-out, over-crowding and cessation of house-building; and venereal disease, though it had increased less than during the last war, was growing fast.

So serious was the latter trouble that on November 11, 1942, a new Defence Regulation (33B) was announced, empowering Medical Officers of Health to require the attendance for treatment of all persons believed to be suffering from V.D. and who were refusing to attend voluntarily. Henceforth such persons were required to attend the clinic, etc., until cured, failure to do so involving penalties up to three months' imprisonment or £100 fine, or both. The regulation was hotly assailed in Parliament and outside, but in view of the seriousness of the menace to the nation's health, it was sustained.

Some impressive figures concerning the financial side of the war were given by the Chancellor of the Exchequer when moving a Vote of Credit for another £1,000,000,000 in the House of Commons on September 9. This made a total of £11,050,000,000 since the beginning of the war. In recent weeks, said Sir Kingsley Wood, the national expenditure had averaged £12,250,000 a day—£10,250,000 on the fighting and supply services and £2,000,000 on other miscellaneous war services. It was a striking fact that there had been no tiring or hesitation in the great sacrifices the people were making to meet as much as possible of this huge expenditure by taxation; in 1940–41 we had financed by taxation 35 per cent of the total Budget; that year (1942) they would finance 45 per cent in that way, and 40 per cent of the national income would go in taxation.

Another financial detail, disclosed this time by Lord Woolton, Minister of Food, on July 14, was that the cost of the food subsidies had been running at the rate of £127,000,000 a year, after allowing £10,000,000 for profits on certain non-subsidized commodities,

AMERICA SUPPLIES 'INVASION' ENGINES

From American locomotive works powerful 'utility' engines were sent to supplement those built by British railways, their ultimate destination being the Continent. Designed for use on both British and Continental systems, they were sturdy engines, and a material help in transporting Britain's enormous wartime traffic. *Photo, Keystone*





BRITISH WAR PRODUCTION GETS INTO ITS STRIDE

New efforts to speed up the supply of war material in 1942 met with amazing success, Britain's figures soaring even above those of America. There was a notable spurt in aircraft output, and factories were stimulated by visits from Sir Stafford Cripps, appointed Minister of Aircraft Production on November 22, and here seen addressing workers. The aircraft industry was closely challenged by the armament factories, among the special concerns of which was the new 6-pounder gun, which proved its worth in Libya, both in tanks and in field batteries. It had a 2-in. calibre and a high firing rate, outranging the Germans' 3-in. gun. Below, testing the breech mechanism of the 6-pounder. (See also illus., pp. 2228-2229.)

Photos, Central Press



The principal foodstuffs subsidized and the amount in million £ were: flour, bread, oatmeal, and animal feeding stuffs, 40; meat, 23; potatoes, 20; sugar, 13; milk, 2; national milk scheme, etc., 18; eggs, 11; tea, 3; milk products, bacon and ham, carrots, and other small items, 7. On July 1 the cost of living figure was 100 per cent—60 per cent for food alone—above the 1914 level; at the end of the year 1942 the figures were 99 and 64 respectively above the 1914 level.

Some changes on the "food front" may be noted. New and simplified ration books came into use at the end of July; it was found that the total "points" had been reduced from 24 to 20 per rationing period, and syrup and treacle, hitherto in the preserve ration, were now included in the points scheme. The cheese ration was temporarily doubled to half-a-pound per head ("heavy" workers, one pound). At the same time, the chocolate and sweets ration, available on personal rations books, was fixed at the outset at 2 oz. per week per head; in August it was increased to 3 oz. The tea ration for "under-fives" was abolished on July 27. All schools, and not the State-aided ones only, were brought within the school milk scheme on August 1. From August 23 biscuits were "put on points." The range of "fancy cakes" was restricted, éclairs prohibited, and the amount of sugar and fats released for cake-making severely reduced.

Utility Furniture & Clothing

Among other domestic changes were the official relaxation, with a view to conserving rubber, of the enjoinder to carry gas masks by day; the introduction of "utility" furniture (to be made available on January 1, 1943), pottery, cooking utensils, suitcases, umbrellas, cutlery and household textiles—announced by Mr. Dalton, President of the Board of Trade, on July 3; the decision not to evacuate any more London schoolchildren after November; the withdrawal as from October 5 of all cheap day and pleasure excursion railway tickets, and from September 30 the withdrawal of the London Passenger Transport Board's Green Line coaches; the rationalization of milk deliveries and the increasing concentration of industries. The proposal to centre the hat-making industry in the North evoked a storm of opposition from Luton, to which the Clothing Control had to bow.

Of the Cabinet changes during the period under review, perhaps the most noteworthy was the departure from the War Cabinet of Sir Stafford Cripps and his appointment as Minister of Aircraft Production. The same announcement from Downing Street, on November 22, stated that Viscount Cranborne took Sir Stafford's place as Lord Privy Seal and was succeeded at the Colonial Office by Colonel Stanley. Colonel J. J. Llewellin became Minister Resident in Washington for Supply. Sir Stafford Cripps' place as Leader of the House of Commons was taken by Mr. Anthony Eden, who remained Foreign Secretary. At the end of the year further appointments were announced: Sir William Jowitt, K.C., Minister without Portfolio; Mr. W. S. Morrison, Minister-Designate for Town and Country Planning; Captain H. F. C. Crookshank, Postmaster-

General; Mr. Harold Macmillan, Minister Resident at Allied H.Q. in N.W. Africa; and Lord Cherwell, F.R.S., Paymaster-General.

For the purpose of record it may be stated that at the end of 1942 Britain's War Cabinet was composed of Winston Churchill, Prime Minister, First Lord of the Treasury, and Minister of Defence; Clement R. Attlee, Secretary of State for the Dominions and Deputy Prime Minister; Viscount Cranborne, Lord Privy Seal; Sir John Anderson, Lord President of the Council; Anthony Eden, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs and Leader of the House of Commons; Oliver Lyttelton, Minister of Production; Ernest Bevin, Minister of Labour and Minister of National Service; Herbert Morrison, Secretary of State for Home Affairs, Minister for Home Security and Minister in Charge of Air Raid Precautions; and Richard G. Casey, Minister of State (Middle East).

Not the least important of the events of the closing year was the publication by H.M. Stationery Office of the 100,000-word Report by Sir William Beveridge on Social Insurance and Allied Services. Generally recognized as the greatest scheme of its kind since the launching of Mr. Lloyd George's National Health Insurance scheme 30 years earlier, it received a remarkably good press and became the topic of almost every conversation.

Beveridge Report

In its terms of reference, the inter-departmental committee of which Sir William Beveridge was appointed chairman was required by Mr. Arthur Greenwood, then (June 1941) Minister without Portfolio in charge of reconstruction problems, "to undertake, with special reference to the inter-relation of the schemes, a survey of the existing national schemes of social insurance and allied services, including workmen's compensation, and to make recommendations."

A number of Civil Service experts constituted Sir William Beveridge's Committee, but by arrangement the Report was prepared and signed by him as a personal contribution to the solution of some of the most pressing and important of modern problems. It took the form of a survey of the present position of national insurance, accompanied by a Plan for Social Security—in Sir William's own words, "a scheme of social insurance against interruption and destruction of earning power and for special expenditure arising at birth, marriage or death." The scheme embodied six fundamental principles: flat rate of subsistence benefit, irrespective of the amount of earnings; flat rate of compulsory contribution, irrespective of means; unification of administrative responsibility; adequacy of benefit in amount and in time; comprehensiveness, so as not to leave uncovered any risk so general or so uniform that social insurance could justly cover; and classification, explained as meaning that the Plan must take account of the different ways of life of different sections of the community (e.g., employees, housewives, old people, etc.).

As an indication of the rates of benefit, a man with a "not-gainfully-occupied wife" would receive 40s. per week as unemployment, disability, or training benefit, or retirement pension. A single woman would receive 24s. per week in similar circumstances, and a widow 36s. a week for 13 weeks. Other benefits would include children's allowances, maternity, marriage, and funeral grants.

The Plan was based on three "Assumptions," without which no satisfactory scheme of Social Insurance could be devised, viz.: (a) Children's allowances for children up to the age of 15 or, if in full-time education, up to the age of 16; (b) comprehensive health and rehabilitation services for prevention and cure of disease, and restoration of capacity for work, available to all members of the community; and (c) maintenance of employment, that is to say, avoidance of mass unemployment.

Physical want, disease, ignorance, squalor and idleness: these, said Sir Wm. Beveridge, were five giant evils that his Plan for Social Security was designed to attack; and the Plan was "submitted by one who believes that in this supreme crisis the British people will not be found wanting, of courage and faith, and national unity, of material and spiritual power, to play their part in achieving both social security and the victory of justice among nations upon which security depends."

Two other contributions towards the planning of a new and better Britain were the report of the Committee on Land Utilization in Rural Areas, presided over by Lord Justice Scott (Scott Report, August 15); and the final report of the Uthwatt Committee on Compensation and Betterment, published a month later. (*See* Historic Documents, pp. 2370-71.)

Although German air raids continued, 1942 showed a steady reduction in the number of casualties and in the damage done. In July Birmingham, Norwich, and a number of other places were attacked, and the casualties amounted to nearly 1,300. By October Hull had had over 70 raids and nearly 800 "alerts." On October 31 Canterbury was subjected in daylight to its heaviest raid since the Battle of Britain. For the year as a whole the casualties were 3,221 killed and 4,149 so seriously injured as to be detained in hospital.

On November 10 Mr. Brown, Minister of Health, stated that just over 2,750,000 houses in England and Wales had been damaged by bombs since the outbreak of war—more than one in five of all the houses in the country. But a great number of these had been only slightly damaged, and 2,500,000 had been repaired by the local authorities and were again in occupation. Of the balance of 250,000 fewer than 150,000 had been torn down and not repaired, while nearly all the remaining 100,000 had received first-aid repairs but were not yet occupied. Moreover, against this loss of 150,000 or so, some 135,000 new houses which were in course of construction at the outbreak of war had now been completed and brought into use. So the net loss was only about 15,000 houses.

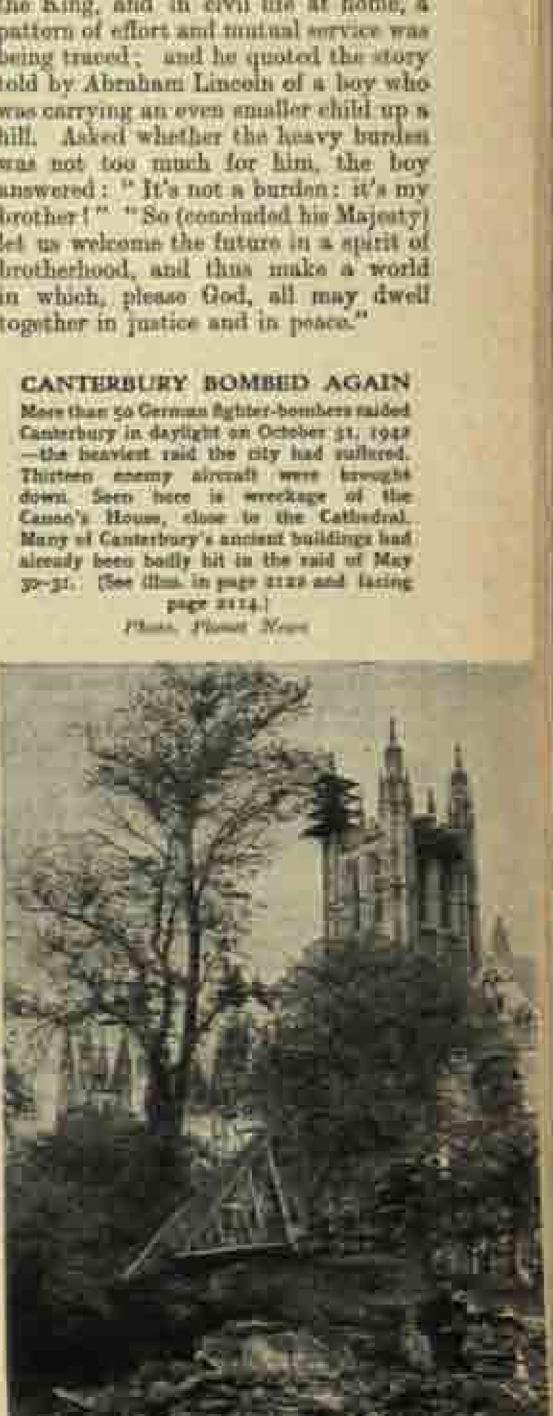
King's Message of Confidence

On Christmas Day, 1942, the King broadcast a message to the Empire, one couched in a tone of firm confidence about the future, justifiable enough in the light of recent victories won by the armies of the United Nations. Tasks perhaps harder than those already accomplished lay ahead, but "we face these with confidence; for today we stand together, no longer alone, no longer ill-armed, but just as resolute as in the darkest hours to do our duty whatever comes." On the sea, on land and in the air, went on the King, and in civil life at home, a pattern of effort and mutual service was being traced; and he quoted the story told by Abraham Lincoln of a boy who was carrying an even smaller child up a hill. Asked whether the heavy burden was not too much for him, the boy answered: "It's not a burden: it's my brother!" "So (concluded his Majesty) let us welcome the future in a spirit of brotherhood, and thus make a world in which, please God, all may dwell together in justice and in peace."

CANTERBURY BOMBED AGAIN

More than 50 German fighter-bombers raided Canterbury in daylight on October 31, 1942—the heaviest raid the city had suffered. Thirteen enemy aircraft were brought down. Seen here is wreckage of the Canon's House, close to the Cathedral. Many of Canterbury's ancient buildings had already been badly hit in the raid of May 30-31. (See illus. in page 2122 and facing page 2114.)

Photo, Planet News



Historic Documents. CCLVI–CCLVIII

BARLOW, SCOTT, UTHWATT: PLANS FOR POST-WAR BRITAIN

Most vital and important of all the reconstruction problems that would face Britain after the War was that of the proper use and development of the country's land, the material basis and foundation of the national life. Three Government-appointed inquiries were made into the question, each dealing with a particular aspect; and their Reports, known in common speech as Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt from the names of the respective Chairmen, are summarized here.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDUSTRIAL POPULATION (Cmd. 6153, published January 31, 1940).

In its terms of reference the Commission, appointed in July 1937 and presided over by Sir Montague Barlow, was required (*a*) to inquire into the causes which have influenced the present geographical distribution of the industrial population of Great Britain and the probable direction of any change in that distribution in the future; (*b*) to consider what social, economic or strategical disadvantages arise from the concentration of industries or of the industrial population in large towns or in particular areas of the country; and (*c*) to report what remedial measures, if any, should be taken in the national interest.

First it reviewed the background. The seven chief industrial areas (it reported), representing together barely more than a quarter of the country's area, contained in 1931 as much as 73 per cent of the occupied population, and in 1937 no less than 70 per cent of the total number of persons insured against unemployment. London and the Home Counties, with about a quarter of the area of Great Britain, contained 29 per cent of the insured population in 1937, the number of insured persons increasing by 1,032,000 in the period 1923–37, while in the same period the other principal industrial areas (with the exception of the West Midlands) all lost ground relatively and in some cases absolutely, as judged by the number of insured persons in them. With the technological development and the growth of economic nationalism the importance of the heavy industries as providers of employment has declined, while at the same time there has been a rapid growth of new industries as a result of inventions and of the rise in the standard of living, which have tended to establish themselves as near as possible to the chief market for their products which, in the nature of things, has also offered the advantage of an ample supply of labour of all kinds.

Such facts as these led to the conclusion that the disadvantages in many, if not in most, of the great industrial concentrations, alike on the strategical, the social, and the economic side, do constitute serious handicaps and even in some respects dangers to the nation's life and development. It was unanimously decided that:

National action is necessary. A Central Authority, national in scope and character, is required, whose activities should be distinct from and extend beyond those within the powers of any existing Government department. The objectives of national action should be: (*a*) continued and further redevelopment of congested urban areas, where necessary; (*b*) decentralization or dispersal, both of industries and industrial population, from such areas; (*c*) encouragement of a reasonable balance of industrial development throughout the various divisions or regions of Great Britain, coupled with appropriate diversification of industry in each division or region throughout the country. The continued drift of the industrial population to London and the Home Counties constitutes a social, economic and strategical problem which demands immediate attention. The Central Authority should examine forthwith and formulate the policy or plan to be adopted in relation to decentralization or dispersal from congested urban areas in connexion with such issues as garden cities or garden suburbs, satellite towns, trading estates, further development of existing small towns or regional centres, etc.—in all cases provision being made for the requirements of industry and the social and amenity needs of the communities, the avoidance of unnecessary competition, and the giving of due weight to strategical considerations.

Without excluding private enterprise municipalities should be encouraged to undertake such development, if found desirable on a regional rather than on a municipal basis, and they should be assisted by Government funds, especially in the early years. All existing and future Planning Schemes should be subject to the Central Authority's inspection with a view to possible modification. The Government should appoint a body of experts to examine the questions of compensation, betterment and development generally. [Out of this recommendation the Uthwatt Committee arose.] The Central Authority should study the location of industry with a view to anticipating cases where depression may occur in the future (e.g. the armament industries when normal peace conditions are definitely secured), and encouraging before a depression crisis arises the development in such cases of other industries or public undertakings.

The majority of the Commission agreed finally to recommend that a new National Authority—the National Industrial Board—should be established by statute for the purpose of making research into, advising upon, and regulating the location of industry. The Board should be vested from the outset with powers to regulate the establishment within London and the Home Counties of additional industrial undertakings; and provision should be made for the extension of this power to other areas, by Order in Council. A Minority Report advocated the grant of these powers so far as the whole country is concerned to a Minister of Cabinet rank, who should be the head, not of a Board but of a specially created new Department of State.

REPORT OF LORD JUSTICE SCOTT'S COMMITTEE

COMMITTEE ON LAND UTILISATION IN RURAL AREAS (Cmd. 6378, published August 15, 1942).

The Committee, whose Chairman was Lord Justice Scott, was appointed in October 1941 by Lord Reith, Minister of Works and Buildings, with a view to considering the conditions which should govern building and other constructional development in country areas consistently with the maintenance of agriculture, and in particular the factors affecting the location of industry, having regard to economic operation, part-time and seasonal employment, the well-being of rural communities and the preservation of rural amenities.

The Committee made the "basic assumptions" that Government policy includes the establishment of a Central Planning Authority, the encouragement of industry and commerce, the maintenance of a prosperous agriculture, the resuscitation of village and country life, and the preservation of amenities. They concluded that, if no Government action were taken, industry and the necessary housing would continue to establish itself on the peripheries of the great population centres, leading in particular to the still greater growth of London and Birmingham. But the drift of population to the towns can be countered by so improving housing and general living conditions, and so equalizing economic, social and educational opportunities in town and country that those who prefer country life will no longer find themselves and their children at a permanent disadvantage. Though the countryside cannot be "preserved," the land of Britain should be both useful and beautiful—ideals which are in no sense incompatible.

At the head of a list of "positive proposals" was put the improvement of rural housing. Electricity should be made available throughout the countryside at prices no higher than in the town. Gas, too, should be extended to rural areas. Tied cottages should be reduced to the minimum. Every large village should have its main water supply, and farms should have piped water. Every village should have

adequate playing-fields, and social centres of the village college type should be provided throughout the country. In the smaller villages there should be at least a village hall.

There must be facility of access for all to the countryside, but this must not interfere with the proper use of land in the national interest. The urban public, landowners and farmers, must be educated with a view to promoting mutual understanding. National Parks should be established under the appropriate Central Authority; and also nature reserves and camps for motorists and cyclists of moderate means.

As regards industry in rural areas: (a) the locations of the extractive and many heavy industries are determined by immutable physical conditions which may sometimes necessitate their coming to country areas, and planning should be directed towards details of site, buildings and disposal of waste; (b) though many light industries are theoretically "mobile" they are in practice tied to a limited choice of localities; where they are brought into rural areas they should be located in existing or new small towns rather than in villages or the open countryside; (c) rural trades and crafts or hand manufactures should on the other hand be located in villages and should be encouraged. As a rule, industry should be encouraged first to make use of vacant or derelict sites in towns. The use of good agricultural land for building should be avoided whenever possible.

[But a Minority Report by Professor S. R. Dennison expressed the view that it should not be accepted as a necessary principle that construction in the countryside must be prevented in order to maintain agriculture or to preserve amenities; the introduction of industry into the countryside, under effective planning control, would be of considerable benefit to rural communities, and some measure of it should be encouraged.]

Although "there is no magic in a specified number of years . . . much that we have recommended can and should be completed within five years, and hence it is suggested that a definite five-year plan be formulated." This would be dependent upon the passing of the necessary legislation before the zero-hour of the plan, which should coincide with the cessation of hostilities.

REPORT OF MR. JUSTICE UTHWATT

EXPERT COMMITTEE ON COMPENSATION AND BETTERMENT; FINAL REPORT (Cmd. 6386, published September 10, 1942).

APPOINTED in January 1941 by Lord Reith, in response to a recommendation by the Barlow Commission, the Committee was required (first) to make an objective analysis of the subject of the payment of compensation and recovery of betterment in respect of public control of the use of land, and also of the subject of the payment of compensation on the public acquisition of land; and (second) to advise what steps should be taken to prevent the work of reconstruction after the war from being prejudiced.

The Committee was presided over by the Hon. Mr. Justice Uthwatt, and in July 1941 submitted an Interim Report.

In the Final Report post-war reconstruction is viewed as the rebuilding of war-devastated areas combined with the complete reconstruction of areas that urgently need modernizing to meet present-day requirements. It is assumed that there will be national planning with a high degree of initiation and control by the Central Planning Authority, and that this national planning will be directed to ensuring that the best use is made of land with a view to securing economic efficiency for the community and well-being for the individual, and that it will be recognized that this involves the subordination to the public good of the personal interests and wishes of landowners.

Undeveloped Land, i.e. rural land, or land that is not built on. To secure its utilization to the best advantage there must be a balanced allocation to the various uses, including (i) reservation for agriculture; (ii) preservation of open spaces, playing-fields, coastal areas, national parks, areas of scenic beauty, etc.; (iii) requirements of transport—roads, railways, aerodromes; (iv) requirements of defence; (v) new building developments, including perhaps completely new centres of living. The most suitable land for the particular purpose must be selected, irrespective of the existing values which may attach to individual parcels of land. This will involve sterilization from building of much land which, if unrestricted, would command a high price for development. Such action is practically impossible at present because of the liability placed on the local planning authority for compensating all the landowners concerned for deprivation of development value.

Here two facts must be borne in mind. (i) Potential development value created by the expectation of future development is spread over many more areas than are actually required for development in the near future or are ever likely to be developed. It is a "floating value," whose place of settlement it is impossible to predict; but it affects the compensation payable both on the public acquisition of undeveloped land and on the imposition of restrictions on the use of land, and plays a large part in the unwillingness of authorities to incur claims for compensation. (ii) Wisely imposed planning control does not diminish the total sum of land values, but merely redistributes them—i.e. it gives rise to "shifting value."

If land with potential development value is purchased by a local authority or is restricted against development, compensation has to be paid for individual loss of land values which have not in fact been destroyed but which have only shifted to other land. In addition, where the land belongs to a number of owners, the aggregate of values claimable by individual owners when separately assessed, owing to the factor of "floating value," greatly exceeds the real loss of the claimants taken as a group. On the other hand, betterment cannot be collected to any substantial degree in respect of the shifted values because it is impossible to say with certainty whether, and to what extent, a given land value is attributable to a given cause.

Developed Land, i.e. built-on land. Here the main requirements are (i) widening of existing roads, elimination of bottle-necks, etc.; (ii) provision of open spaces; (iii) rebuilding of bombed areas, slum and overcrowded areas, etc.; (iv) rehousing of population displaced from rebuilt areas; (v) provision of amenities and cultural facilities—schools, libraries, cinemas, etc.; (vi) provision of industrial necessities—docks, offices, factory sites, etc. Interference with existing users and buildings is much greater than in the case of undeveloped land, and the financial cost of compensation may well be enormous, since acquisition in developed areas involves payment not only for the land but for existing buildings which may have to be demolished and compensation to traders for disturbance to their businesses.

In theory, compensation and betterment should balance each other. In practice they do not, and under the present system of land ownership it is not possible to devise any scheme for making them balance. If all the land in the country were in the ownership of a single person or body the necessity for paying compensation and collecting betterment on account of shifts in value due to planning would disappear. But a policy of land nationalization is rejected because (i) it is not one to be embarked upon lightly and would arouse keen political controversy; (ii) it would involve financial operations which, in the immediate post-war period, might be entirely out of the question; and (iii) it would involve the establishment of complicated administrative machinery.

Short of immediate nationalization, the only solution of the compensation-betterment problem in regard to undeveloped land is that the rights of development therein should be vested immediately in the State, on payment of fair compensation, such vesting to be secured by the imposition of a prohibition against development otherwise than with the consent of the State, accompanied by the grant of compulsory powers of acquiring the land itself when wanted. As regards developed land its piecemeal transfer to public ownership, as and when required for planning and other purposes, would be less cumbersome a task than that involved in immediate wholesale nationalization. Powers of purchase, much wider and simpler in operation than under existing legislation, should be conferred on public authorities.

A periodic levy should be imposed on increases in annual site value, with the object of securing such betterment for the community as and when it is realized, enjoyed or realizable.

[A number of subsidiary recommendations explain and amplify the above.]

AIR WAR IN NORTH AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN, JULY TO DECEMBER, 1942

British air-land strategy in the last vital phase of the Libyan campaign took a new turn when the Allied Air Force became in effect an 'Army of the Air,' with fighter planes leaping ahead of our attacking ground forces. Air tactics in this and the Mediterranean theatre of the war are described by Captain Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., who in Chapter 254 reviews air operations in Western Europe and the Far East during the same period

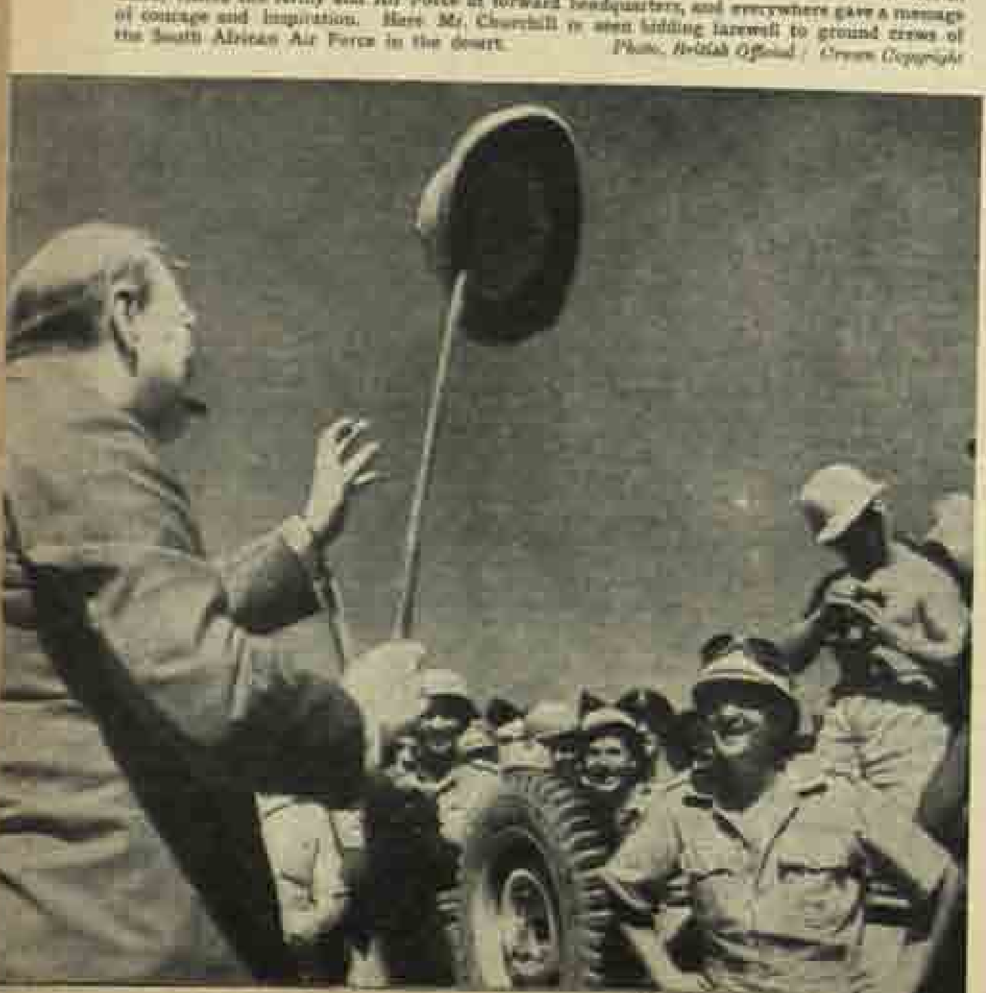
For the Royal Air Force and the air forces allied with it the second half of 1942 was an extremely important period of the war. In North Africa the old method of air cooperation with the army in the field was ending, and the new method of the combined operations of a well-knit land and air force had been entered upon. Tactical and strategic air forces were separated under different commanders, but both operated under the senior direction of an Air Chief Marshal acting in the closest collaboration with and conforming to the requirements of the Army Commander. For the Air Force and for the Army this was a new conception of things, but it was the direct result of the existence of a separate third Service of the Air, and this alone could have made it possible. Most astonishing results were to follow—a series of military victories which surpassed any ever achieved by the efforts of the army-tied Luftwaffe of Germany.

The midsummer of 1942 appeared depressing enough after the destruction of Britain's armoured forces at Acroma and Sidi Rezegh (see Chapter 224) by Rommel's concentrated guns, followed by retreat, the swift fall of Tobruk, and then the flight (for it was nothing else) back to El Alamein, some 80 miles west of Alexandria. The speed of the Eighth Army's withdrawal saved it from complete disaster. Rommel's men, following along the desert trail enveloped in dust, fell asleep and some even fell off their lorries as they slept. The German Afrika Korps was in no condition to fight when it reached the bottle-neck between the Qattara Depression and the sea. There it halted, a concentrated army, and an ideal target for air attack—a situation of which the R.A.F. was swift to take advantage. The tired German troops were shot up by day from the air and bombed by night. They got no rest.

That retreat was a salutary lesson, a bitter pill which contained an adequate dose of military medicine. The advance of the Eighth Army into Cyrenaica in the spring of 1942 was accompanied by numerical air superiority, yet it had failed. If air power were the key to victory in the field, clearly numerical air superiority alone was insufficient. What was the answer?

MR. CHURCHILL WITH S.A.A.F. GROUND CREWS

Much sprang from the British Premier's two visits to the Middle East in August 1942—on the way to Moscow and again on his return from Russia. He held momentous conferences in Cairo, visited the Army and Air Force at forward headquarters, and everywhere gave a message of courage and inspiration. Here Mr. Churchill is seen bidding farewell to ground crews of the South African Air Force in the desert. *Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright*



Premier Visits 8th Army

Mr. Churchill, who was in Washington consulting with President Roosevelt, hurried home by air and reached London on June 27, when the Germans were already east of Mersa Matruh. Soon afterwards he flew to Egypt, in a Liberator, by way of West Africa and Khartoum. There he went everywhere, saw everything, consulted the men on the spot. In the heat of the Egyptian midsummer he made a heroic figure, clad in a tropical white suit and white topee, with the inevitable cigar in mouth and a large elephant's-tail fly-whisk in his hand. The news-reels showed him lunching in a marquee housing an R.A.F. officers' mess, sitting in the garden with the child of the British Ambassador to Egypt (Sir Miles Lampson), visiting the fighting troops, inspecting the Qattara Depression, regarding everything with critical eyes. (See illus., p. 2238.)

General Sir Claude Auchinleck gave place to General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander as C.-in-C. Middle East, while instead of General Ritchie (superseded in June) Lieut.-General B. L. Montgomery was now Commander of the Eighth Army. Admiral Sir A. Cunningham remained Naval C.-in-C., and Air Chief Marshal Tedder Air C.-in-C., with Air Vice-Marshal Coningham



ADVENT OF THE 'TANK-BUSTER'

One counter-measure adopted against tanks in the Libyan Battles of 1942 was the use of the Hurricane IID, a special version of the famous fighter, fitted with two large-calibre guns, one beneath each wing, as seen here. More or less officially, these aircraft were known as 'tank-busters,' but the squadrons called them 'tin-openers.' The 40-mm. guns were capable of automatic or single-shot fire, and weighed only 320 lb. each.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

still in command of the Tactical Air Force, and Air Vice-Marshal Slatter in command of the Strategic Air Force in the Eastern Mediterranean. There began another race to determine which of the opposing armies would strike the first blow.

Rommel was close to the Nile delta and the Nile Valley, but his supply line was long, and the last part of it, running over the desert coastal road and railway, was singularly suitable for air attack.

Malta Supply Problem

Aircraft of the R.A.F., now pushed far into the basin of the eastern Mediterranean, found it difficult to interfere with enemy ships crossing the Sicilian Channel from Italy to North Africa, but they were at least well able to bomb and blast the nearer ports—Bardia, Tobruk, and Benghazi—and the toll of ships sunk within those harbours steadily rose. Malta, isolated once more, played a valiant part in the attacks on Axis shipping convoys crossing the central Mediterranean. In order to do this Malta had to receive material and food from outside. In June two convoys had set out for the island, one steaming west and the other east. A great air-sea action developed. Beaufighters from Malta, American-manned Liberators from North Africa, carrier-borne fighters and torpedo-bombers joined in the four-day struggle. The convoy from Gibraltar reached Malta. That from Alexandria failed to get beyond Tobruk. Ships were sunk and aircraft lost on both sides, but the stores that reached Malta were to prove a useful asset when, a fortnight later, the Eighth Army was back at El Alamein.

In July 1942 Rommel possessed strategic air superiority over the central Mediterranean, while the Eighth Army possessed tactical superiority over the battlefield. If the Allies were to defeat Rommel they must obtain a greater measure of strategic air power over the Mediterranean. Long-range aircraft were required for that purpose because of the geographical situation; therefore, in addition to the reinforcements of American long-range bombers, some of the long-range aircraft of Bomber Command were dispatched to the Mediterranean theatre.

The peculiar conditions of the desert war emphasized the importance of tanks as fighting vehicles. The second advance of the Imperial forces had been a tank struggle—a battle to destroy, on the part of each side, the other army's armour. If the lesson of the failure to get beyond Nofilia was bitter, and if the titanic tank battle of Sidi Rezegh was indecisive, there was reason to believe that other weapons were required. One of these new weapons was the "tank-buster" Hurricane, a special version of the principal victor in the Battle of Britain, strengthened to take and equipped with two 40-millimetre cannon-guns mounted one under each wing. Our air power in North Africa was increased to give us not merely superiority—it was in a ratio of about five to three in our favour when General Auchinleck attacked—but supremacy. This supremacy could not be obtained simply by the supply of aircraft. It had to be fought for, and to gain it meant that we had to destroy the air power of the enemy in North Africa.

Battle for Air Supremacy

The daily pounding of Rommel's forces in the air and on the ground began with 166 Spitfires and Hurricanes carrying out sweeps over the battle area at hourly intervals; on July 10 Allied fighters went over, wave after wave, for hours on end. A hundred and thirty bombers, escorted by 127 fighters, attacked enemy concentrations south-west of El Alamein; 75 Kittyhawk fighter-bombers attacked enemy transport on El Daba aerodrome; and at night 98 Wellingtons, Liberators, and Blenheims attacked motor transport in the El Daba area and shipping off Benghazi. (The Wellington, for marine attacks, was fitted to carry torpedoes, and became as much a torpedo-bomber as a land bomber.) A South African Air Force Hurricane squadron, led by 28-year-old Major Le Mesurier (from Cape Town), met 14 Junkers-87 dive-bombers about to peel off into a dive on one of our positions at El Alamein; the South African pilots waded in and crashed 13 Stukas and a Messerschmitt-109 within a few seconds.

Malta played its part in the battle for supremacy of the air; fighter pilots there shot down 78 aircraft (29 bombers) in the first 11 days of July and the gunners destroyed five more, for a loss of 21 fighter aircraft and 12 pilots. It was at this period that Air Vice-Marshal K. R. Park (knighted November 24, 1942), who had commanded No. 11 Group of the R.A.F. in the Battle of Britain, took over command of Malta's air squadrons from Air Vice-Marshal H. P. Lloyd. In his order of the day, when relinquishing command, Lloyd disclosed that the enemy had been forced to provide battleship escort for their convoys owing to action from Malta base, and he continued: "We







Air Marshal Sir A. W. TEDDER, G.C.B.
From June 1941 to November 1942 he was Air Officer C.-in-C. Middle East. He was promoted Vice-Chief of Air Staff in November, and awarded the G.C.B. Among his outstanding achievements was the perfecting of Army-Air co-operation.

Air Vice-Marshal Sir L. H. SLATTER, K.B.E.
Commanded the Strategical Air Force in the Eastern Mediterranean. He was promoted from Air Commodore, a rank he had held since 1940, in December 1942; a month earlier he had been awarded the K.B.E. for his services in the Battle of Egypt. *British Official Photo*

Air Vice-Marshal Sir A. CONINGHAM, K.C.B.
First as A.O.C. Western Desert, and later as Commander, Tactical Air Force, in the Middle East, he was responsible for operations in the field, under the direction of Sir Arthur Tedder. In November 1942 he was advanced from C.B. to K.C.B.

Portrait of Sir A. W. Tedder by Capt. Neville Lewis; By permission of the S. African Govt. Portrait of Sir A. Coningham by Sir W. Rothenstein; Crown Copyright reserved.

destroyed and damaged so many aircraft that it weakened the German effort in Africa." (See illus., p. 2275.)

Malta, at that period, was of strategic importance, too. From its aerodromes Southern Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia were bombed. Our earliest attacks upon Naples were made from Malta. The island's aerodromes were a stepping-stone on the most direct air route from Britain to the Middle East.

But keeping Malta munitioned after the retreat to El Alamein was a still more hazardous air-sea operation than before. The convoys had to pass through the 100-mile-wide Sicilian narrows with enemy airfields in Sicily, Tunisia, and Pantelleria threatening the critical zone, which lay outside the range of any of our shore-based aircraft. To counterbalance our deficiency in aircraft, large aircraft carriers were used to escort the convoys on the run to Malta.

Convoy's Four-day Battle

One of these convoy air-sea battles began on August 11 and lasted for four days. H.M.S. "Eagle," one of several aircraft carriers in the escort, was sunk by a U-boat on the first day, and some of her fighter aircraft went down with her. Captain L. D. Macintosh, D.S.C., had commanded the ship for barely six weeks; he was one of the earliest R.N. observer officers in the Fleet Air Arm in the days when almost all the pilots belonged to the R.A.F., and a carrier's flying deck, wardroom, and messrooms were thronged with a mixture of light-blue and navy-blue uniforms.

About five hours after the "Eagle" sank the first air attack began upon the convoy, by a combined force of high-level bombers, torpedo-bombers, and Stuka dive-bombers. But these enemy aircraft which swarmed out from Sicily and Sardinia met the fighter defences of the convoy, launched from the decks of the remaining carriers. The fighting in the air over the narrow channel took place mostly out of sight of the ships, and attack after attack was smashed; those enemy aircraft which got through the fighter screen (and many did, for the number of aircraft which a carrier escort can put up is limited) were met by the terrific gunfire barrage of the escorting ships, including battleships. In the later stages of the action Beaufighters from Malta joined in, and when the ships steamed still nearer to the island the short-range shore-based fighters chipped in. Ships were sunk, and others damaged, but a sufficiently substantial reinforcement was carried through to Malta. During the whole operation fighters and guns destroyed at least 66 enemy aircraft; only eight British fighters were lost, and four pilots were saved from them. That convoy battle was a preliminary to the launching of the attack by the Eighth Army at El Alamein. Malta was an essential "fixed aircraft carrier" situated well forward in the Mediterranean, where its aircraft (and submarines) could refuel and reammunition to operate against the Axis supply line and deplete the stores which Rommel's Afrika Korps so badly needed after its long spurt forward into Egypt.



Major G. J. LE MESURIER, S.A.A.F.
He led a South African fighter squadron in the biggest individual air victory in the Western Desert. They attacked a formation of 15 Stukas, escorted by fighters, preparing to bomb our lines at El Alamein, and shot down 14 aircraft.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

The enemy tried to pound Malta into impotence. But the guns and the fighters on the island maintained a stubborn and successful defence. Army units on the island helped the Air Force to maintain its bombed aerodromes. Air Vice-Marshal Sir Hugh Lloyd (knighted on July 31) reported to Sir Archibald Sinclair: "But for the Army we should have been out of business. The aerodromes were in such a frightful state that the rollers had to be used continuously for 24 hours on end. We were dependent on the Army. The Army was magnificent." Machinery and equipment were all put underground—fortunately an easy job in the soft limestone of the island; rollers were protected by blast-proof pens. (See illus., p. 2276.)

Meanwhile it was a race between General Alexander and Field-Marshal Rommel to be ready to strike first on the bottle-neck of the El Alamein position between the sea and the Qattara Depression. Rommel attacked first, at 12.50 a.m. on August 31. The heavy bombers discovered Rommel's men to





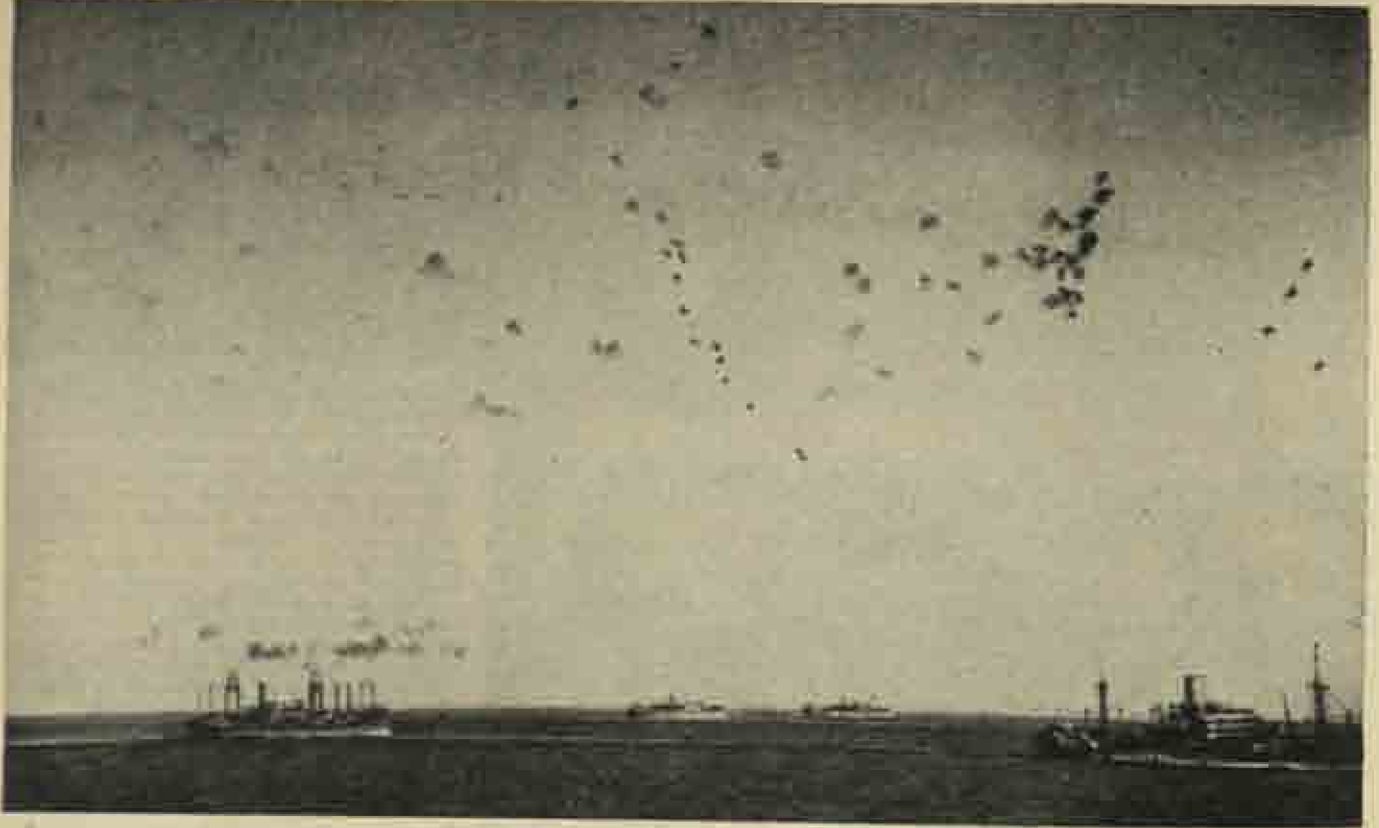
R.A.F. IN EGYPTIAN OFFENSIVE

Close cooperation with the land forces was a feature of the Allied advance in the Western Desert. Enemy bases and concentrations were ceaselessly hammered, while our aircraft went before the advancing Eighth Army as flying artillery. 1. Hurricane II fighters setting out on one of countless sorties. 2. Devastation wrought by the R.A.F. at the Derna airfield. In order to increase Allied strategic air power over the Mediterranean, long-range aircraft of Bomber Command were sent to the Middle East in July. 3. Halifaxes from these squadrons that became famous for their regular strafing of Tobruk and Benghazi. 4. Stuka raid on British forward positions near El Alamein.

Photos: British Official: Crown Copyright







LONG ORDEAL OF A MALTA CONVOY

On August 11, 1942, the enemy opened an air-sea assault on an Allied convoy bound for Malta, the hottest fighting taking place in the air above the Sicilian 'narrows.' It was in this long-drawn battle that we lost the aircraft carrier 'Eagle,' by submarine attack on the first day. Above, under a sky filled with bursts of anti-aircraft shells, the convoy steams on towards Malta.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright

be on the move before the attack developed. Immediately the Imperial and Allied air forces struck, pounding Rommel's rear forces. Allied air superiority was never in doubt. On September 2 and 3 all records for numbers of bomber sorties over the desert were broken. In six nights more than a million pounds of bombs were dropped on Rommel's troops. During the day fighters and fighter-bombers slashed the forward lines, and beat down the enemy fighter defences in the beginning of that great tactical air engagement above the desert which was to prove the deciding factor in the war in North Africa.

The heavy bombers were heavier than any previously used in the desert, and for the first time 4,000-lb. bombs were used there. This was the British answer to the German Stuka, which relied upon the accuracy of dive-bombing for its effect while using relatively small bombs of about 250 to 500 kilogrammes in weight. British heavy bombers, employing their two-ton (almost) bombs, got a far greater "spread" effect, and obtained devastating results by blast more than outmatching the alleged greater accuracy of the Stukas. The British method could be employed at night, but the Stukas had to work by day to gain their effect; and during daylight the Stukas could get results only if their fighters had command of the sky. But this was denied them by the British and Allied supremacy over the German fighters, so that even the assumed value of the accurate aim of the Stuka proved to be a fallacy in practice because the Messerschmitts were beaten. The greater size of bombs was Britain's first answer to Rommel's superiority in sizes of guns and tanks, and it proved of greater worth, for the damage inflicted on the rear of the German front both before and during the attack was the main factor in deciding the issue and in bringing about the defeat of Rommel's attempt to break through the bottle-neck. The British attack at El Alamein



MUNITIONS TO THE FRONT : WOUNDED TO THE BASE

When the speed of Rommel's retreat in the desert put too great a strain on Montgomery's communications the R.A.F. brought up supplies to the front line, and then returned to the base with wounded personnel. Lockheed Hudson transport planes are here seen on a desert airfield, with an ambulance drawn up to transport the wounded farther. This fine service saved many lives and much suffering.

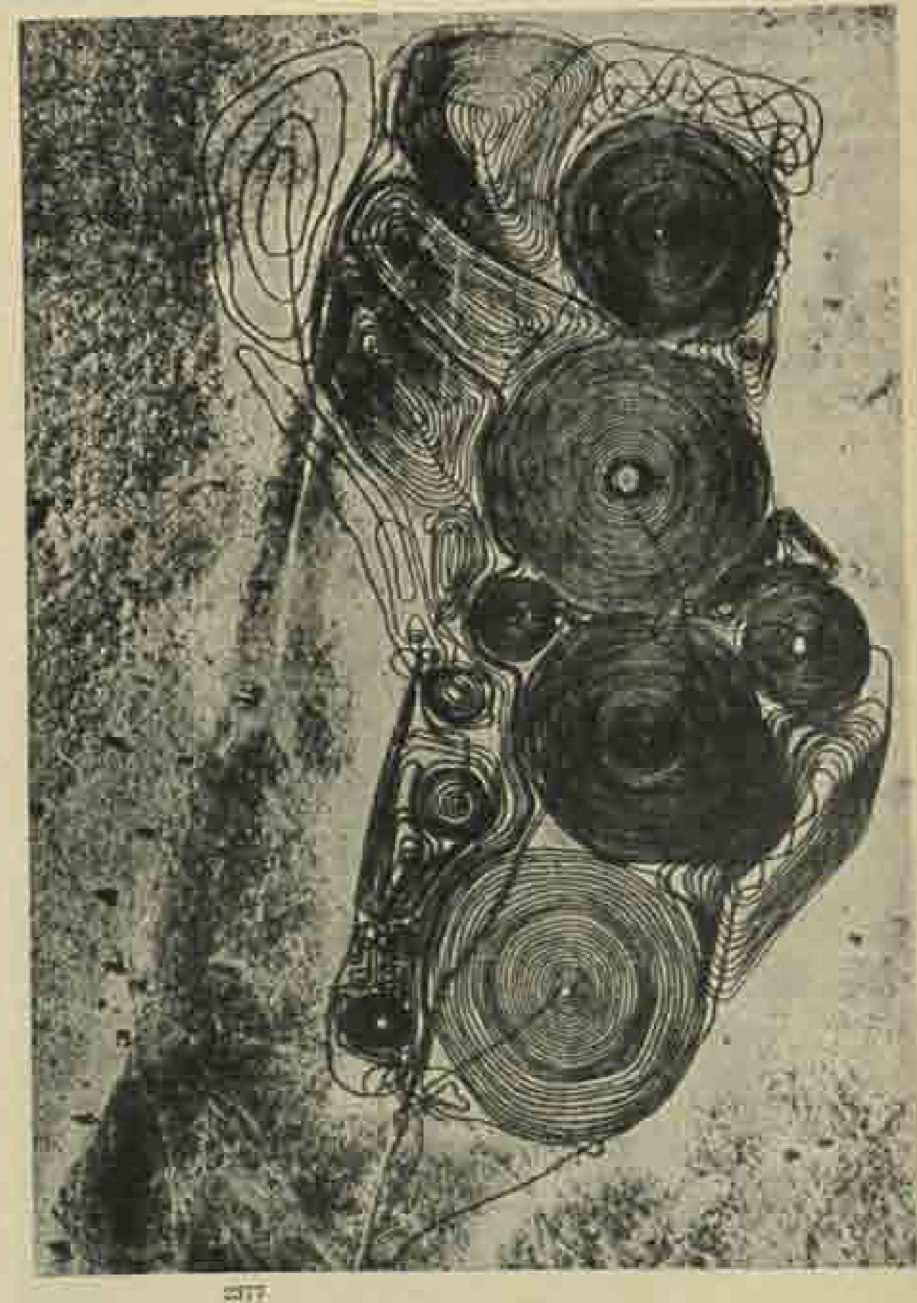
Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright



ALL-IMPORTANT AIRFIELDS

Swiftly and efficiently the ground organization of the R.A.F. improvised airfields in the desert, so that our fighters could operate close behind the retreating enemy, who assiduously destroyed the landing grounds he was compelled to abandon. Top, spadework on a desert area in Tripolitania for the R.A.F.; below, destructive ploughing by the Germans: the tractor-plough was driven in concentric circles.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



began on Oct. 23, 1942. It was preceded by a violent air barrage behind the German front-line positions, which continued day and night without intermission.

In addition to this, the fighters and fighter-bombers assailed the actual fighting zone and forced the German troops to keep under cover during the forward move of the infantry forces who were required to break the enemy front. There was no way round: it had to be a frontal attack; and it was in this initial operation that the ability to put a roof over the heads of our ground forces was to prove so valuable. Its success was due to the previous beating down of the Axis fighters by decisive fighting in the air and by heavy attacks upon their airfields. Thus aircraft, guns, and infantry battered the German defence lines, and our infantry got through after severe fighting. The German line broke, and Rommel began to go back. The Tactical Air Force then ranged ahead of the retreating German force, smashing its columns of vehicles along the coastal road, giving German and Italian troops no rest by day or by night, intercepting barges which attempted to bring up supplies to beaches, and interfering with the smooth organization of the Axis retreat.

Pounding Enemy Infantry

Here began the new principle of the employment of air power, wielded by expert air commanders in harmony

with the requirements of Army commanders responsible for the complete operation. This was no longer air co-operation; it was the welding of the air arm allotted to the Western Desert into a composite part of the whole force. The use of air power was now clear to the commanders of the Army and of the Air Force alike.

The function of aircraft was not merely (as had once been thought) to give cooperative support to the fighting units of the Army. It was to form a vital army of the air, whose duties were primarily to disorganize the opposing army so that the enemy commander could no longer exercise authority over a force which had lost cohesion. When that happened, and the integration of the enemy organization was torn to shreds, the enemy force was no longer able to offer a coordinated defence, and our ground forces were able to break through and deal with the scattered elements of the disintegrated enemy. Opposition to this use of air power could come only from the effective use of a superior air element in the enemy organization which would be able to destroy our aircraft in the air and on the ground. That air element of superiority had passed from Rommel's hands, and it was that factor more than any which forced upon the enemy commander his long retreat to Tunisia.

A Vital Army of the Air

Under General Alexander and Air Chief Marshal Tedder the tactical ground and air forces commanded by General Montgomery and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham worked as a team. The Army indicated its needs; the Air Force put them into effect. When the Air Force required the help of the Army, the Army put that help forward instantly. As the move forward began to take impetus, the urgent need was for airfields from which the method of attack could be continued. The Army made the capture of airfields a primary objective. The Axis forces, realizing what they were up against, ploughed up the surfaces of the landing grounds and did all they could to render them useless to our Air Force. So aviation engineers moved forward with the Army in the spearhead of its advance, dropped off at the unusable airfield, or at a place where a new airfield could be made quickly, and got to work. Bull-dozers (powerful machines for shifting soil and grading the surface) and rollers soon repaired the damage done by the enemy, so that fighter aircraft could fly up to the new advanced airfield and so keep up the fighter offensive over the area ahead of the ground forces.

Transport aircraft brought up air personnel and supplies, including petrol. Sometimes fighter squadrons, taking off from the airfield they had been using for several days, were directed at the end of their sortie to alight at a new airfield perhaps a hundred miles farther forward, there to be refuelled and rearmed for a leap to battle another hundred miles ahead. When a stoppage of the ground advance occurred both tactical and strategic bombers concentrated on the nodal point, and so blasted the enemy that the experience of El Alamein was repeated, and the enemy again disintegrated into a force over which its commander had lost coordinated control.

The fighters employed were mostly Hurricanes, Spitfires and Kittyhawks. Some carried bombs, some were armed with cannon guns of 20-millimetre calibre, some with rifle-calibre machine-guns; and there were the Hurricane tank-buster aircraft with two 40-millimetre cannon guns mounted, one under each wing. These last went out low over the desert, skimming just above the surface in search of enemy tanks, plugging them wherever they were to be found, themselves too manoeuvrable for the tank crews to give effective reply.

Over the whole pattern of the battlefield war-in-the-air was laid the strategic bombing plan, hitting at Axis ports, dumps and vessels, and bringing within its compass the operations both of Bomber Command operating from the United Kingdom and of the bombers based on Malta. These attacked the arms centres in Northern Italy, France, and Southern Germany most likely to provide convenient sources of supply for the German Afrika Korps, and the ports of north and south Italy and Sicily, convoys in passage, and targets in Greece and Crete whence help might be dispatched to Rommel.

Soon it became apparent that Axis air power in North Africa was being substantially destroyed, and that the balance of air power in favour of the United Nations was continually increasing through reinforcements and enemy deficiencies. The secret lay in a dual technical excellence of our aircraft and aircrews over those of the enemy (including the psychologically stunned effect that continual defeat produces upon the Teuton mind); the continual subjection of enemy aircrews and ground personnel to the blast and noise effects of unremitting air bombardments over their aerodromes and sleeping quarters, and the fact that we ourselves at long last had learned the lesson of mobility as the means to the most effective employment of air power.

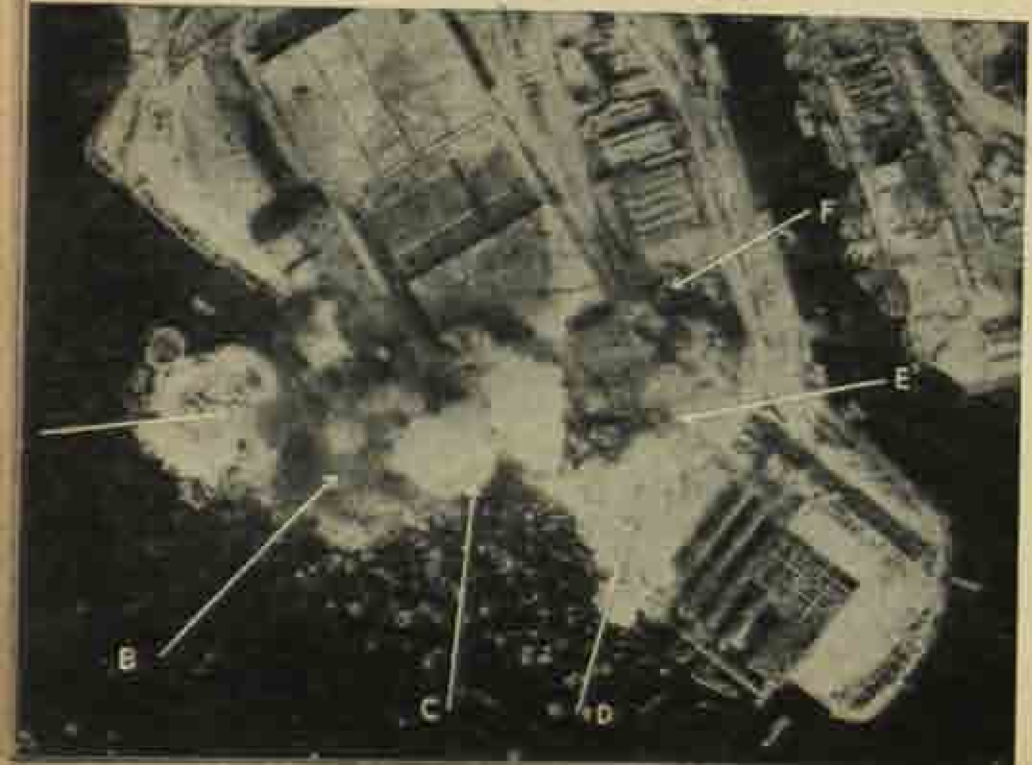
Importance of Mobility

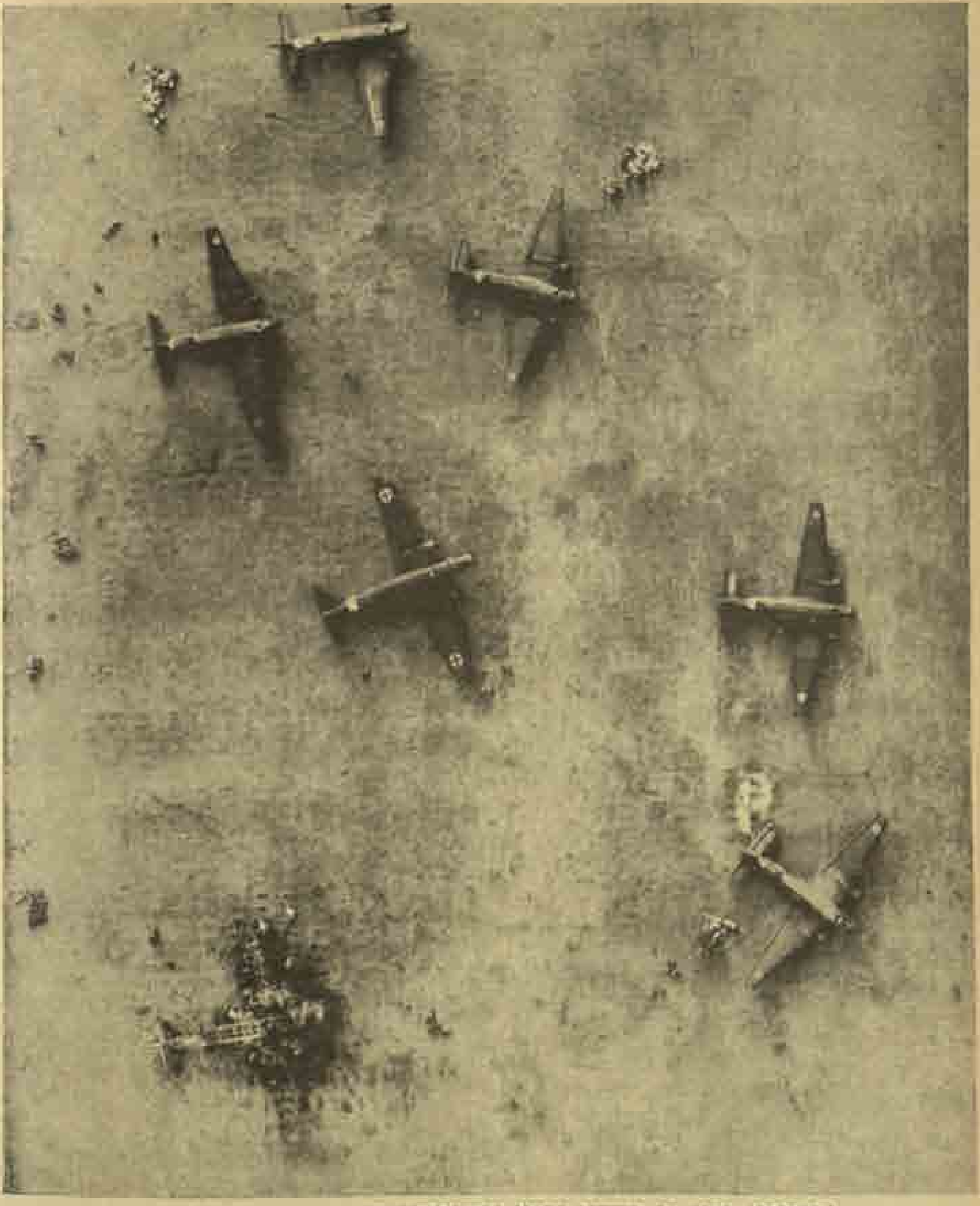
Meanwhile, at the Washington Conference (June 1942) between President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill, a decision had been reached to make a landing in French North Africa. That decision was made before Rommel drove us

DAYLIGHT BOMBING OF LORIENT U-BOAT BASE

The big U-boat base in Brittany was attacked by American Fortresses, escorted by R.A.F. Spitfires, on October 21, 1942: A, after a bomb had burst on floating docks; B, a later burst which enveloped a U-boat at the dock; C, bombs bursting near entrance to submarine shelter; D, uncompleted U-boat pens; E, bursts on buildings between central block of shelters and the Long Basin; F, two direct hits on a large building.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





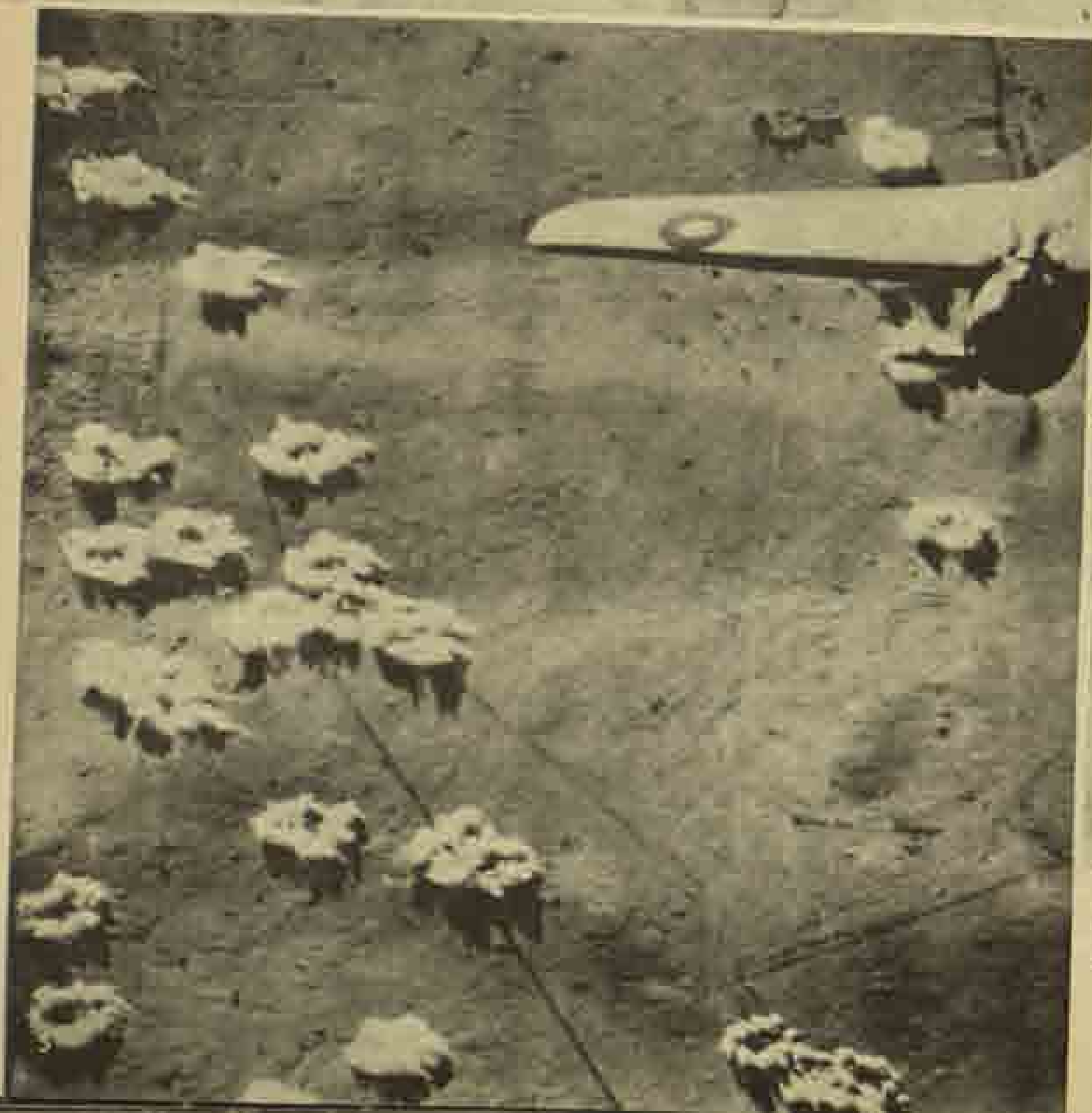
BEAUFIGHTERS MADE LITTER OF AXIS AIRCRAFT

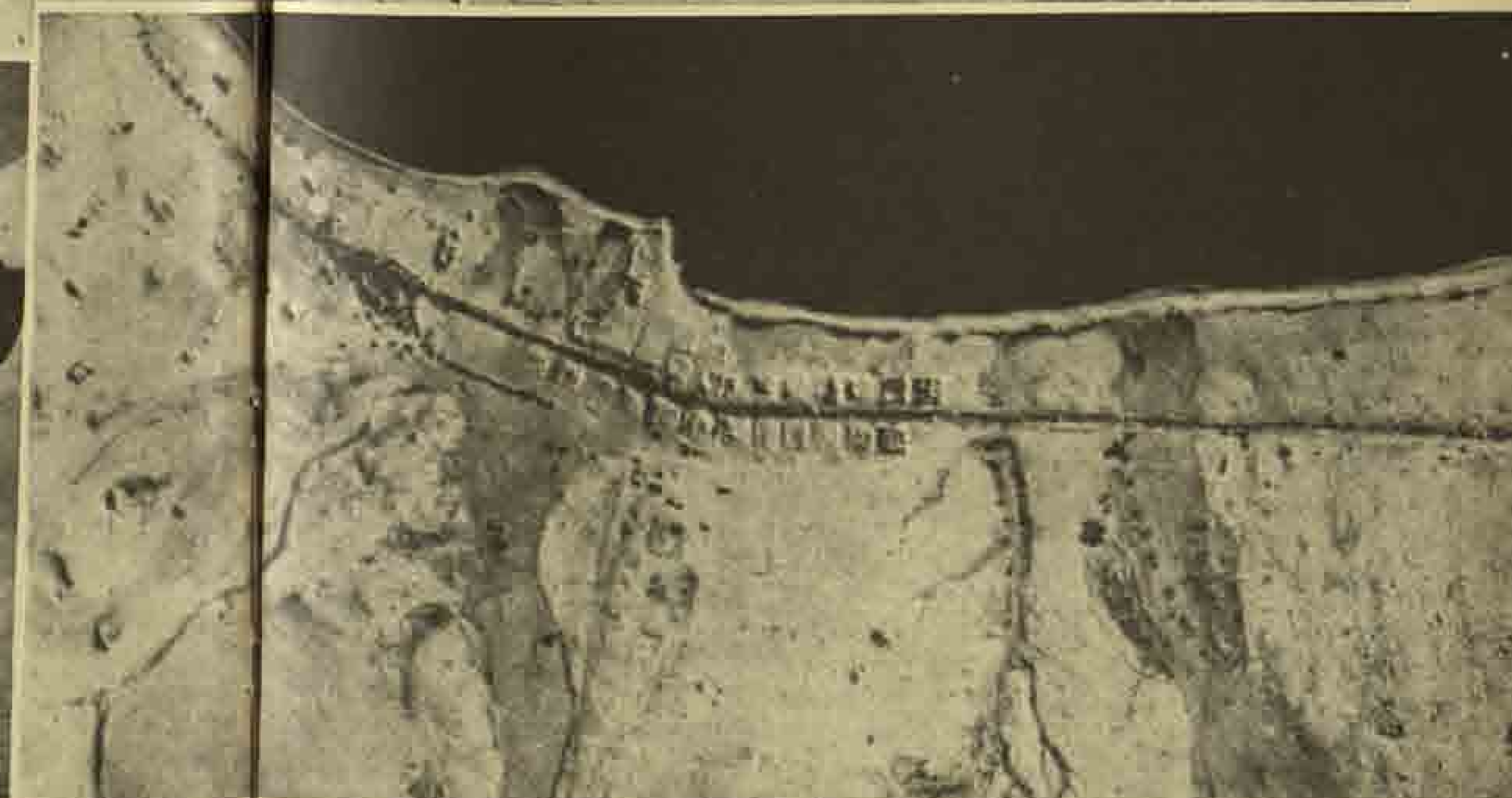
Tunis aerodrome was packed with Axis air transports rushing German troops and arms into Tunisia to meet Anglo-American landings in Morocco and Algeria, when Beaufighters made a fierce night attack on November 11, 1942. The photograph, taken the next day, shows five Ju-52 troop-carriers with the burnt-out remains of an Italian SM-81. Above the latter is another SM-81, with German markings.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright









WHEN ROMMEL'S AFRIKA KORPS, IN HEADLONG RETREAT, WAS CHECKED AT THE HALFAYA-SOLLUM BOTTLE-NECK

Top left photograph (1) shows the coastal road between Sollum Pass (at extreme left, beginning in hairpin bend on the headland), and Halfaya Pass (near right-hand edge of picture). Halfaya is seen enlarged in (2), with a stream of enemy vehicles making its way to the top of the escarpment; many, wrecked and abandoned, litter the roadside. In (3) is a larger view of part of the road near Sollum, blocked with Axis transport and pitted with bomb craters. The retreating enemy was relentlessly harried by the Allied Air Forces; what came to be known as 'shuttle' squadrons followed the Afrika Korps every mile of the way. In (4) bombs are dropping on Axis vehicles from R.A.F. medium bombers. (See map, p. 2011, and illus., p. 2013.)

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



AIR 'UMBRELLA' FOR GREATEST INVASION ARMY

While the greatest armada in history carried an Anglo-American invading force to French North Africa in November 1942, the R.A.F. and U.S.A.A.F. maintained a huge protecting air 'umbrella.' The aircraft flew more than 1,000,000 miles in 8,000 flying hours. Above, part of the great convoy photographed from a Coastal Command machine, with (inset) Air Vice-Marshal Douglas Colyer, in charge of the air operations.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; [illegible]

back to El Alamein. But, as the Eighth Army, aided by air power, turned the tables on Rommel's generalship, the Allies' preparations proceeded apace to descend upon Algeria. The programme as planned was too late to help the second Allied drive through Cyrenaica under Generals Auchinleck and Ritchie, and its date was perhaps too early to synchronize in complete harmony with the advance of the Eighth Army under Generals Alexander and Montgomery. But the initial plans could not be greatly altered as to timing without upsetting the highly complicated machinery of organization required for so vast an amphibious operation.

In order to provide cover for the huge convoy of some 500 transport vessels and 350 warships, Coastal Command flew more than a million miles (in 8,000 flying hours) in just over three weeks, waging fierce war against the submarines and their air auxiliaries, nowhere more effectively than over the Bay of Biscay. U.S. Army Air Force bombers attacked the submarine bases at St. Nazaire and Lorient. The writer saw some of the Fortress bombers go over on this mission, flying high in a tight formation of their own peculiar pattern, with each engine of almost every bomber forming its own vapour trail behind the wings; the impression was as that of a great battle fleet at sea, ploughing through blue water with white foam splashing astern. It is when they fly high that the fast speed of the Fortresses becomes noticeable, for it is only then that their turbo-superchargers are working to capacity. (Owing to the less dense atmosphere the supercharger then has to supply a greater volume of air to the engines.)

Air Cover for our Armada

Bomber Command pounded Genoa (main supply port out of Germany and occupied France for the Axis forces in North Africa) in the night following October 22; and again attacked this port, and Savona (near-by port), and Turin in the night following October 23—the night when the Eighth Army attacked at El Alamein. On the following day and the succeeding night Bomber Command attacked Milan. Throughout the whole month of October air action in the Mediterranean was intensified. United States air units played a considerable part in this activity. (From February to October 1942 inclusive 1,000 aeroplanes were shipped from America to Egypt.) Benghazi, Tobruk, Sollum and other enemy bases were attacked, some by day and night. Forward enemy aerodromes in the Fuka region were plastered. The enemy seaplane base at Bomba was attacked on October 6. The aerodrome at Tymbaki in Crete was raided by heavy bombers in the night following October 10. During the month Malta destroyed 138 enemy aircraft and resisted many air assaults.

Fierce fighting by infantry, pounding by guns, thrusts by tanks, and unremitting bomb, shell, and machine-gun fire from aircraft were maintained upon the enemy positions in the Western Desert. Despite the strength of their positions the Axis forces were unable to withstand the merciless battering from land forces, from the air above them, and, occasionally, the shelling from the sea that brought enfilade fire to bear upon them, and at the beginning of November the general retreat began. The Axis air force was beaten down remorselessly, and pinned almost to the ground, where it was systematically destroyed. There was no security for it anywhere.

Genoa was again pounded by Bomber Command during the nights following November 6 and 7; only six bombers were lost in the two operations. The enemy in the desert was then fleeing west of El Daba towards Sidi Barrani. Before daylight on November 8 United States army, navy, and air forces, supported by units of the British navy and air force, landed in the neighbourhood of Casablanca (Morocco) and in Algeria. The aerodromes of Rabat and Safi were raided. Next day British forces landed at Algiers, and American troops at Philippeville. Aircraft were flown ashore to occupied aerodromes from aircraft carriers. Airborne troops took part in the operation, leaving England on November 7 and, after flying 1,500 miles non-stop to Algeria, descended by parachute to take part in the attack on Oran. Their Dakota troop-transports alighted on already occupied aerodromes. Some resistance occurred at both Oran and Casablanca, but by November 11 all hostilities between the Anglo-American and French forces in Algeria and Morocco ceased. The armistice was signed by General Eisenhower and Admiral Darlan. British and American forces reached and occupied Bougie, 110 miles east of Algiers.



LIBERATOR'S BOMBS GO DOWN ON AXIS SHIPS

The occasion was one when R.A.F. Liberators were attacking Axis convoys in the Mediterranean—some weeks after the opening of the Eighth Army's offensive from El Alamein in the early autumn of 1942. Behind the tail of the aircraft can be seen the swirl of water as an enemy cargo vessel took avoiding action. Several direct hits were made.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

This *coup* was carried out under American directives from President Roosevelt; in command was General Eisenhower, later to become Allied Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Mediterranean force. The achievement was not without political significance. General Giraud, who had escaped from a German prison camp into Switzerland, and then into France, had been taken by boat and submarine from the French shore to a flying-boat, which in turn had flown him to Morocco. The American General Mark Clark with British officers had landed in Morocco from a submarine in the darkness of





AFTER PARACHUTE TROOPS TOOK MAISON-BLANCHE

From aircraft which took off at English airfields on November 10, 1942, and reached their objective in Algeria next day, our parachute troops (mostly British) dropped down to the vitally important airfield of Maison-Blanche, Algiers, and captured it. Above is the scene a few hours later. Right, facing the camera, Air Marshal Sir William Welsh, K.C.B., commanding the R.A.F. in North Africa.

Photos, British Official : Crown Copyright ; Associated Press

the evening before the landing of the troops. The way for the *coup* had been prepared with care, but there was the force to fight if negotiations with the French had failed. For North Africa to be in the possession of the United Nations as a base was an essential preliminary to the main attack upon the Axis.

In no respect was French co-operation, or at least absence of resistance, more important than in the matter of aerodromes where shore-based aircraft could be sited. American landings at Oran on November 8 were supported by Fleet Air Arm aircraft which bombed and machine-gunned aerodromes. More parachute troops, mostly British, left England on November 10 and landed at Maison-Blanche, Algiers, aerodrome next day. Spitfires and Hurricanes were already operating from the Algiers airfields; on November 12 the parachute troops took off and dropped to the attack of Bône aerodrome, which they captured.

Then, while General Anderson's British First Army marched eastward towards Tunisia, parachute troops of the United Nations were flown ahead of the ground forces and dropped to engage the German airborne troops which had been rushed into Tunisia as soon as the news of the Allied blow became known. By November 11 Axis fighters and dive-bombers were at the Tunis and Bizerta airfields. An airborne division was landing German 12-ton tanks. Air transports were rushing men and supplies across the 100-mile-wide Sicilian narrows, followed by transport vessels. The R.A.F. opened its air bombardment of Tunis airport and seaport. Bomber Command attacked the Fiat works in Turin in the nights following November 18 and 20 without loss.

Parachute Troops in Tunisia

German raids against Britain came almost to a standstill. Allied air pressure against German and Italian war zones and home industries was now compelling the Axis air forces to conform to its effect. Initiative in the air was passing from the Luftwaffe and Regia Aeronautica to the Royal Air Force and American Army Air Forces.

The British First Army advanced rapidly into Tunisia and reached Mateur (22 miles south-west of Bizerta) and Tebourba (20 miles west of Tunis). There they came under concentrated fighter and bomber attack from Axis aircraft operating at close range from El Aouina (Tunis) and Sidi Ahmed (Bizerta) airports. The nearest Allied airfield was Bône, 120 miles from Bizerta and 136 miles from Tunis. The Allied fighting front was almost beyond the effective range of Spitfires based on Bône, which were unable to stay over the battlefield for more than a few minutes in each sortie. This enabled German Stuka dive-bombers to operate almost with impunity, and that, coupled with German infantry and tank thrusts, forced a retirement upon the British advanced troops. Swift as the descent upon Algeria had been, and rapid as was the subsequent advance into Tunisia, the German short communication lines across the Mediterranean narrows enabled the enemy to deploy air power into Tunisia speedily as his primary counter-measure, and to do it with success.

The First Army was to learn the lesson which the Eighth Army had already learned—that the application of air power to the decisive points is essential in modern war. Longer-range Lightning fighters were brought into action and helped the First Army in its battle with the bombers, but it was evident that no positive conclusion could be reached in Tunisia until the Eighth Army fought through from Tripolitania (which it was then about to enter) to provide the adequate air support which the mountainous nature of the country occupied by the First Army precluded, because it was difficult to construct airfields therein. For the moment the Anglo-American thrust into Tunisia became a stalemate, but one destined, nevertheless, to develop soon into a decisive victory. Gradually small airfields were scratched out of any level patches in the mountainous country behind the British First Army, and from them Spitfires and Lightnings began to operate and so were able to provide a substantially better margin of air cover than had previously been possible. Enemy counter-attacks were easier to resist.

Air Support was Inadequate

In the Western Desert war the Eighth Army occupied Benghazi on November 20, 1942, and with this advanced port in British hands the strain of the long communication line along the desert road and through small ports was lessened. The enemy was forced out of Jedabia by a concentration of air power which enabled our ground forces to advance with but slight pressure, and Rommel's forces retreated to El Agheila. Meanwhile the strategic air force was engaged in the bombardment of Tunis, Tripoli and Bizerta ports and airfields.

Far away to the north Bomber Command attacked Turin in the night following November 28, using an 8,000-lb. bomb on Italy for the first time. The enemy counter-raided Bône and Algiers.

When Rommel halted at El Agheila

the R.A.F. and Allied air forces began to bomb, cannon-shell and machine-gun the areas behind the bottle-neck defences. The principal target was "Marble Arch"—a desert landing-ground 40 miles behind the enemy front. The attack was so continuous and merciless that the Luftwaffe was forced to pull out and retire 50 miles to Nofilia airfield. Their distance from the fighting zone then left the German advanced forces at the mercy of the R.A.F. and their comrades. The Germans were pounded until their position became untenable, and before the Eighth Army ground forces had done more than probe the position, Rommel packed up and fled in the darkness of the night following December 12.

The fleeing columns were attacked by air and got no rest. Then the air attack concentrated on Nofilia, and by December 18, 1942, that place was evacuated by the Axis. The synchronization of air and land forces was now at its zenith in the desert war. No sooner was Rommel forced out of one place because it became untenable on account of air bombardment and fire power than the Army pushed the last remnants of his forces farther on and prepared new airfields, or repaired existing but damaged airfields, for the use of British aircraft still nearer to the goal—Tunisia. The airfield engineers became as important an organization in the Army as any unit.

Fighters were kept ahead of the Army to play their part of modern cavalry, and the way was cleared for tactical bombers to move up close so that the maximum weight of bombs could be brought to bear upon the enemy fighting units and their immediate rear. Efficient and speedy communication was essential, and mobile radio and land-lines played a large part in the necessary contacts with the army and air units concerned; the elaborate air-operations rooms of standard conditions gave place to more primitive but more flexible methods suited to the conditions of the desert war. The Air Forces were as mobile as the Army, perhaps more mobile, and by their very mobility gave to the Army units the protection of a devastating overhead fire-power that crushed the enemy and knocked him (often literally) senseless.

Thus the Army gained freedom of movement and safety of organization while the enemy it confronted disintegrated into something that often approached a leaderless soldiery. That was the contribution to military science which General Montgomery—a profound believer in air power—and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham made by their tactical partnership in that desert war, and into which General Alexander and Air Chief Marshal Tedder skilfully wove the strategical organization of wider mesh that took into its compass the great actions that spread afar about the Mediterranean and played an important part in the isolation of the combat zone, which, by the end of the year, reached from the mountains of Tunisia facing the coastal plain to the Wadi Ber el Kebir on the borders of Tripolitania, while General Leclerc's forces from Chad had advanced and bombed the enemy aerodrome at Sebha (north-east of Murzuk) in their northward drive towards the Allied forces closing their pincers on the southern littoral of the Mediterranean Sea.

Masterpiece of Army-Air Cooperation

Operating from airfields on Malta, Wellington bombers dropped 4,000-lb. bombs on Tunis port; Fleet Air Arm Albacore torpedo-bombers sank two ships off Sicily and bombed Sicilian aerodromes. So came to a close in North Africa the year 1942, with the Axis threat to Egypt utterly removed and the way prepared for the final expulsion of the Axis from African soil.

ADVANTAGE OF THE ENEMY'S SHORT SUPPLY LINES

Swift as had been the Anglo-American descent upon North Africa, the enemy, with his short communication lines across the Mediterranean narrows, as speedily deployed air power into Tunisia. Top, German transport planes of the Ju-52 type after landing with supplies; lower photograph, Stukas taking off for a raid on Allied positions.

Photos, Associated Press; Sport & General









RED NAVY HELPED TO DEFEND THREE SOVIET CITIES

In the Barents, Baltic and Black Seas and on the River Volga the Red Navy was very active in the latter half of 1942. For their final assault on Sevastopol the enemy transported flotillas of armed speed-boats by land (1) from the Adriatic to Odessa. The Soviet Black Sea Fleet shelled German positions (2), but the great naval base fell on July 3. The Baltic Fleet participated in the defence of Leningrad, while the Northern Fleet, aided by coastal batteries—one is shown (4) guarded by a sentry—kept open the Arctic supply route. This Fleet's most spectacular achievement, the torpedoing of the 'Tirpitz,' was carried out by the submarine commanded by Capt. Nikolai Lunin (3). Gunboats and marines of the Volga Flotilla (5 and 6) gave vital help to the defenders of Stalingrad.

Photos, Topical Press; Planet News; Pictorial Press









DARK DAYS FOR ALLIES IN THE SEA WAR

On the sea alone did the enemy maintain the initiative in the second half of 1942. The relief of Malta and the convoying of supplies to Russia involved serious losses to the Royal Navy. In the Pacific three costly battles were fought. However, the successful Allied landings in North Africa and the torpedoing of the 'Tirpitz' partly redressed the balance

The second half of the year 1942 was of great importance at sea all over the world, although main interest was in the Mediterranean at the beginning and end of the period, which covered what was confidently regarded as a turning point.

The Germans were scoring further successes in the Black Sea, Sevastopol being evacuated on July 3, and the enemy's occupation of successive naval bases continuing, despite stiff resistance and many successes against seaborne communications. Vice-Admiral Oktyabrsky (see illus., p. 2260) was in charge of the naval defence of Sevastopol. In his own account he says that the first German offensive, in October 1941, and the second, in December, were repelled with the help of heavy shelling from Russian warships. During the third and last German offensive (June–July, 1942) the Black Sea Fleet was compelled to take a lesser part, owing to the lack of airfields from which Soviet fighters could operate to protect the ships. Nevertheless, at the most critical moments of the assault Soviet cruisers and destroyers steamed into Sevastopol Bay and hurled a tornado of fire at the Germans, at the same time fighting off attacks by enemy bombers and torpedo-carrying aircraft. Fifteen to 20 enemy attacks per day had to be repulsed. Marines and Naval artillerymen manned coastal batteries and fortress guns and rendered invaluable help to the Red Army in many land actions.

At the other end of the long battle front the Baltic Fleet took its part in the defence of Leningrad; it had begun active operations on the first day of war. After the fall of Sevastopol the Germans brought up some of the heavy siege artillery which had battered the southern stronghold. One of these guns was located by Naval gunners in October 1942 soon after it opened fire, and was destroyed. The enemy moved the others back into safety. Russian submarines sank enemy transports and tankers; the "Osipov" torpedoed five transports on a single cruise. In the Neva sector and other parts of the perimeter Soviet marines fought alongside the Red troops, while sailors also took part in land actions. The battleship "Marat" cooperated with the land forces at the approaches to Leningrad. From an observation post on shore signals were sent to the chief artillery officer, who directed the battleship's fire against enemy columns moving up to attack. The depth of the German defences was bombarded by long-range fire, and when the enemy's heavy guns replied to the "Marat" they were quickly silenced. Dive-bombing attacks were beaten off and the battleship was unharmed.

The Volga Flotilla played a notable part in the defence of Stalingrad, destroying tanks and infantry concentrations. Marines of the Flotilla fought also in the city itself.



Actg. Capt. F. T. PETERS, V.C., D.S.O., D.S.C., R.N.

In face of point-blank fire from French shore batteries, he took the cutter H.M.S. 'Walney' through the boom into the harbour of Oran, November 8, 1942. Blinded in one eye and crippled with wounds, he was the sole survivor on the bridge. He was killed in an air accident later in the month.



Commander J. W. LINTON, V.C., D.S.O., D.S.C., R.N.

Commander of H.M. submarine 'Turbulent,' which up to May 3, 1943—when it was stated to be overdue and presumed lost—had sunk a cruiser, a destroyer, a U-boat and 28 supply ships aggregating some 100,000 tons. Comdr. Linton's most notable successes were achieved in the N. African campaign.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Daily Mirror

One of the most brilliant exploits of the Northern Fleet was the torpedoing of the German battleship "Tirpitz" on July 5, 1942. The Soviet submarine was commanded by Nikolai Lunin, who had become famous for his daring and was credited by this time with sinking 50,000 tons of enemy shipping. In the course of a routine patrol in the Barents Sea, which Russian sailors call the "storm kitchen," the submarine spotted a large smoke cloud, and submerged. Through the periscope the cloud was seen to grow larger, and presently the silhouettes of a whole enemy squadron were discerned—eight destroyers, three heavy cruisers and the "Tirpitz." Lunin decided to break through the destroyer line, rise to periscope depth, and fire point-blank at the big battleship. The submarine submerged to 120 feet and waited while the destroyers passed overhead. Then, rising to 30 feet, Lunin saw the grey mass of the battleship immediately in front. He gave the order to fire the fore tubes, and heard the impact of the two torpedoes against the ship's side, followed by the deafening explosions. When he rose cautiously to periscope depth some little while later, the damaged battleship was moving off, closely surrounded by her escort.

The enemy squadron was out to intercept a big Allied convoy due to pass that way to an Arctic port. Much of the work of the Northern Fleet was the protection of convoys and the hunting down of enemy raiders. On one occasion an enemy mine became entangled with the paravane of a Soviet cruiser of the Northern Fleet. Escorting



RESCUE OF SURVIVORS OF H.M.S. 'EAGLE'

One of Britain's oldest aircraft carriers, H.M.S. 'Eagle' was torpedoed and sunk while escorting a convoy to beleaguered Malta on August 11, 1942. Of her complement of 748 officers and men, 617 were saved, including her commander, Capt. L. D. Mackintosh, D.S.C., R.N. Above, some of the survivors being taken aboard another warship in the convoy, having swum through floating wreckage. H.M.S. 'Eagle,' completed in 1924, accommodated 21 aircraft.

Photo, Topical Press

the warship was a submarine chaser commanded by Captain Spiridonov. The cruiser slackened speed to rid itself of the mine, and at that moment a U-boat fired two torpedoes. Spiridonov brought his ship between the torpedoes and the cruiser. The submarine chaser was hit on the starboard side and split in two, but the cruiser was saved. Spiridonov was blown into the sea but was picked up. In 16 months his formation of submarine chasers sank five enemy warships and transports and two submarines.

In the Mediterranean the prospects of the Allies were certainly grim indeed at the beginning of July 1942. The position of Malta was precarious, the enemy was on the border of Egypt and the direct Mediterranean route was still barred to British shipping. Although incessant air attacks on Malta had reduced its efficiency in worrying the Axis North African supply line, the island was still of immense importance and its loss would have been a disaster. It was increasingly difficult to get supplies through, and more than one convoy had been turned back. By the middle of July the island was almost on its last legs, although the hearts of the defenders were still stout, and it was imperative that supplies should be forced through. Attempts from the east had been frustrated by the main Italian fleet, but a big convoy of fast ships was collected to make the attempt from the west. The Naval escort under Vice-Admiral E. N. Syfret consisted of battleships, cruisers and destroyers; unfortunately H.M.S. "Eagle" was the only aircraft carrier available to provide the necessary umbrella. The attacks started on August 11 by aircraft, submarines and E-boats, and the first disaster was the sinking of H.M.S. "Eagle" by an enemy submarine. There was consequently practically no air cover through the dangerous Sicilian Narrows until convoy and escort came within range of the fighter planes from Malta, which were short of petrol, and there were heavy casualties among merchant ships in the Cape Bon area. H.M. cruiser "Manchester" was damaged and subsequently sank, while the anti-aircraft cruiser "Cairo" and the destroyer "Foresight" were so badly damaged that they were sunk by their own people to avoid delaying the convoy.

Relief of Malta

In spite of losses a heavy toll of the enemy was taken—submarines, E-boats and planes—and sufficient ships got through to assure the continuance of Malta's defence. Special credit was given to the chartered American tanker "Ohio," with a British crew, carrying invaluable high-octane motor spirit. Repeatedly hit by bombs and badly damaged by a torpedo, she carried on with naval assistance and finally made port, for which Captain Mason was awarded the George Cross and Lloyd's War Medal. Later other convoys got through, and by Christmas 1942 sufficient reinforcements, stores and munitions had been landed to keep the island safe for a long period.

The Axis supply route to North Africa was constantly attacked by submarines, while the R.A.F. bombed enemy bases; although these attacks greatly hampered the service they did not stop it. On September 13 a large-scale Commando raid was made on Tobruk, intended to spoil the port as a supply base; a hitch in timing marred the success of the operation, and it cost the Navy the Tribal destroyers "Zulu" and "Sikh." Landing barges carrying a force of Marines from these ships were swept by searchlight from the shore as they made their way in, and came under very heavy fire. There were many casualties and the planned landing place could not be reached. Despite this disaster, and aware that he could not hope for reinforcements, Major J. N. Hedley, R.M., who was in command, pushed on with his remaining men and at the point of the bayonet destroyed a number of machine-gun posts and cleared a tented camp. With a grenade he personally destroyed an enemy machine-gun crew mounted on a lorry and shot five Italians in a prepared position with his revolver. Radio contact with British forces proved impossible, and when he had to surrender next day Major Hedley had only 16 men left. He and Lt. C. N. P. Powell were both awarded the D.S.O.

Tobruk Raided by Marines

When the Eighth Army commenced its real advance in October 1942 the Navy dealt with Axis positions within reach of the coast; when the enemy made his final stand in the West the concentration of Axis supply lines on one or two ports gave our submarines

and aircraft more advantageous targets, and the number of their victims increased rapidly. In the later stages in Tunisia the U.S. Navy afforded considerable assistance, and even before that the famous aircraft carrier "Wasp" had ferried numbers of fighter planes to within flying distance of Malta.

In view of such heavy shipping losses the reopening of the Mediterranean route was of great importance, for the Cape route was ruinous in both tonnage and fuel. The direct route from London to Alexandria was 3,104 miles, but the journey round the Cape was nearly 11,500, subject to attack most of the way. The Cape route involved long convoy delays, often at ports where conditions increased the fouling of the ships very rapidly, reducing speed and adding to fuel consumption.

Reopening of the Mediterranean

In the South Atlantic Brazil's declaration of war on August 22 facilitated defence by the use of her airfields and naval bases, while Brazilian airmen and the small fleet took an enthusiastic part in the protective patrol. On the East African side many ships were being sunk, and protective measures had started with the occupation of Diego Suarez in Madagascar in May (see Chapter 225). Mayotte Island in the Mozambique Channel was occupied early in July, but continued sinkings were a serious matter for the Russian supply route through the Persian Gulf and our own to the Middle East. In September successful steps were taken to occupy the whole of Madagascar. The Navy's part in these was invaluable, but not very spectacular. Perfect organization and timing were rewarded, but there was only one short and sharp bombardment at Tamatave, after Vichy forces had machine-gunned the flag of truce. The Fleet also had to hunt submarines, watch for an advance by the Japanese navy, and prevent blockade-runners getting through to Europe with badly needed supplies for the Axis from the Japanese-occupied territories.

In the Pacific both sides needed a breathing space; the Japanese were held up by lack of tonnage to maintain their lines of communication and to take home the loot of the conquered territories. The Midway Island repulse in June had been a great shock to them. Their supply convoys were constantly attacked by every means, and many merchant ships and escorts were sunk. The activities of submarines all along the supply route also diverted many Japanese warships to convoy duties.

The menace to Allied communications with Australia was also serious, and to remove it the American-Australian offensive in the Solomons was started on August 7. U.S. Marines landed at Guadalcanal, covered by an Allied Naval force, and next day intensive

THREE TIMES TORPEDOED: U.S.S. 'WASP' ABLAZE

Completed only in December, 1939, at a cost of 21 million dollars, the 14,700-ton U.S. aircraft carrier 'Wasp' met its end on September 15, 1942, while escorting supply ships to Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands. Three Japanese torpedoes turned the magnificent vessel into a blazing inferno. It was revealed on July 1, 1942, that the 'Wasp' had recently ferried aircraft reinforcements to Malta. On one occasion R.A.F. fighters took off from 'Wasp' and went straight into action with an enemy air fleet which was harassing the 'George Cross' island.

Photo, Planet News





MEN OF H.M.S. 'PORPOISE,' SUBMARINE FREIGHTER

First British submarine to carry a cargo of petrol and conduct a mine-laying operation during her passage was the 1,500-ton H.M.S. 'Porpoise.' During 14 months' service in the Mediterranean, 1941-42, under the command of Lt. L. W. A. Bennington, D.S.O., D.S.C., R.N., she made several supply trips to Malta, laden with aviation spirit and ammunition for the Fleet Air Arm and the R.A.F. These trips are recorded by white bars on her very own 'P.C.S.' ('Porpoise Carrier Service') flag, above. 'Kills' are recorded on her Jolly Roger flag.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Japanese air attacks on the transport fleet were generally unsuccessful. At night a naval action developed which lasted several days, the forces consisting principally of cruisers and destroyers. Finally the Japanese claimed to have sunk 11 cruisers, 6 destroyers and 10 transports, mainly by "suicide" torpedo aircraft; the Allied admission was H.M. Australian cruiser "Canberra" and the American "Quincy," "Vincennes" and "Astoria" sunk, as well as torpedo craft damaged. The Japanese forces were compelled to retreat, but there was considerable American criticism of the fighting, and Vice-Admiral Ghormley was relieved by Vice-Admiral William F. Halsey. (See illus., p. 2314.)

On October 11 a smart cruiser and destroyer action resulted in considerable Japanese losses, and on the 25th the Japanese launched an unsuccessful combined attack on the American positions at Guadalcanal. The Japanese reported that they had sunk one battleship and four aircraft carriers and damaged many others, while sustaining slight damage to two aircraft carriers and one cruiser. The published American losses were the destroyer "Porter" and the famous aircraft carrier "Hornet"—from which Doolittle's squadron had flown to bomb Tokyo in April—sunk by aircraft, and a fleet tug and small harbour patrol vessel sunk near Tulagi.

Another naval action lasted from November 12 to 14, when a considerable Japanese fleet attempted to cover landings in Guadalcanal and Tulagi. The first action was at short range at night, when the Americans intercepted two capital ships of the "Kongo" class apparently intended for the preliminary bombardment. The Japanese were forced to withdraw to the north. The American cruisers "Atlanta" and "Juneau" were sunk, with seven destroyers; but while the Japanese admitted one battleship, one cruiser and three destroyers sunk, with 47 of their planes brought down, the Americans claimed three heavy and two light cruisers, five destroyers and 12 transports. The absence of Japanese aircraft carriers was noted; in this type they had suffered severely, and had been making up the deficiency by the use of converted liners—quite unsuitable for fleet actions at high speed. On Nov. 30 an action off Lunga resulted in the U.S.S. "Northampton" being sunk. Again the Japanese concealed their losses, but they abandoned the venture on which they had been engaged.

Defence of Port Moresby

In the New Guinea area the Japanese used their warships as high-speed transports and suffered considerable casualties, the all-important Allied base at Port Moresby being preserved against all attack. On December 20 carrier-borne British planes successfully attacked the Japanese base at Sabang (Sumatra), and caused a diversion.

In the Aleutians American operations were severely hampered by constant fog, which also prevented the Japanese from making any great use of their positions, although no opportunity was wasted of harrying enemy communications by aircraft and submarines.



SOLICITOR WHO BECAME A NAVAL HERO

Lieut.-Commander R. P. Hichens, D.S.O. and bar, D.S.C. and two bars, R.N.V.R., who was a solicitor before the war, became one of the most renowned commanders of British light coastal forces. He is shown above giving instructions to officers of his flotilla, some time in 1942, before an operation in 'E-boat Alley,' which our 'little ships' had swept practically clear of enemy raiders by the end of the year.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Several destroyers, which formed the backbone of the Japanese naval forces in those waters, were sunk. In October the Americans crept forward, tying down the Japanese to the Kiska area.

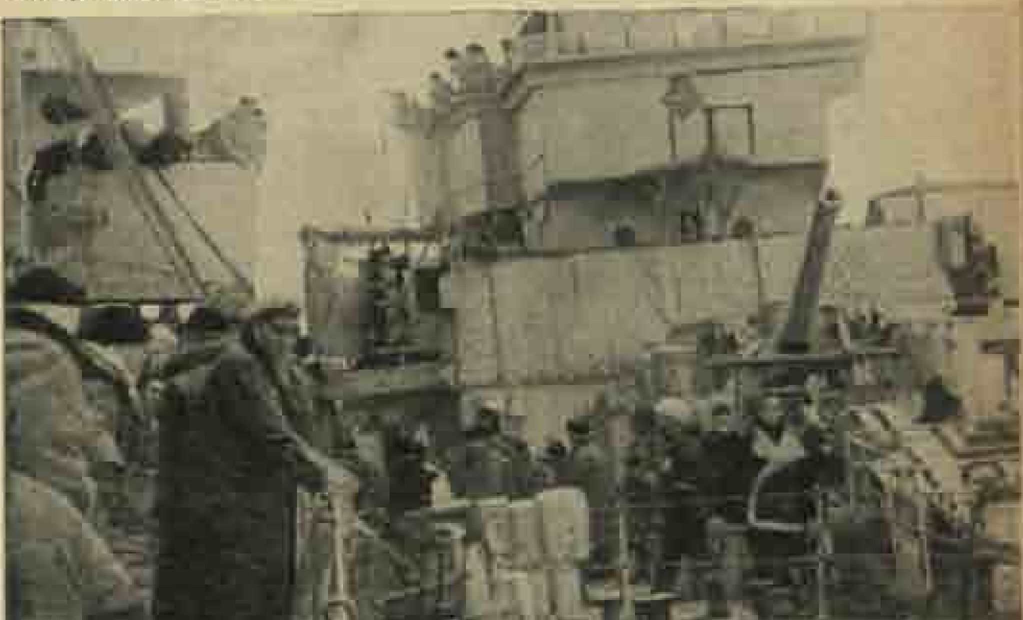
In home waters there were long periods of boring routine for the big ships, which had to be kept ready to deal with the German armoured squadron in Norwegian waters close to the North Russian route. The light coastal forces, principally motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats, found steadily increasing opportunity, of which they took full advantage. The great strengthening of the British flotillas, and the steady flow of well-trained personnel "from under the lamp-posts" showed excellent results, and the initiative passed almost entirely to our forces, with constant attacks on German sea communications, alone or in conjunction with aircraft. The carefully planned co-operation between the motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats was particularly successful. They pinned the German light forces more and more to their own coasts in order to defend their convoys, greatly relieving pressure on British convoys up the east coast and practically robbing "E-boat Alley" of its old dangers. Lieutenant-Commander R. P. Hichens, D.S.O. and bar, D.S.C. and two bars, R.N.V.R., a solicitor-yachtsman who had joined the branch in 1940, became a popular hero.



CASUALTIES IN FOUR-DAY ARCTIC CONVOY BATTLE

In September 1942 the greatest convoy ever sent to Russia—H.M.S. 'Scylla,' under Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett, led a fleet of 75 escort ships—was attacked by torpedo planes and other enemy aircraft. Losses were relatively small in the four-day battle. Above, a heavy smoke pall surrounds one merchantman which did not get through. Below, survivors are transferred from a destroyer to the flagship 'Scylla.'

Photos, British Newsreels



The light coastal forces also took a very important part in the raid on Dieppe on August 19, whose object was partly to do material damage, partly to test the German defences, partly to obtain experience in invasion work, and partly to tie down German forces in view of important operations planned in other areas. The Navy's part in this operation was important, and the losses were extraordinarily light. It supplied all the landing craft, eight destroyers (including one Polish), a river gunboat, a sloop, mine-sweepers and numerous motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats manned from the entire Empire. An unlucky encounter with an enemy convoy gave premature warning and caused delay. Our destroyers and gunboats bombarded the German batteries and positions and covered the landing and withdrawal: the only important vessel lost was the destroyer "Berkeley."

Raid in Force Upon Dieppe

There were a number of important attacks on our supply convoys to Northern Russia. No convoy ever expected to get through without being attacked, and many cases were not even mentioned. Some attacks were really serious, with the constant danger of the big ships coming out to overwhelm all but the heaviest escort. In addition to their bombs and torpedoes, enemy aircraft dropped mines ahead of the convoy and attempted to drive it towards them. Three important cases deserve record. On July 2 a convoy was attacked by aircraft and submarines between the North Cape and Spitzbergen. Berlin claimed that out of 38 merchant ships and a powerful escort they had sunk 32 and an American cruiser, but Moscow positively stated that the bulk of the convoy had got through after being attacked by the "Tirpitz" and big surface ships, which had in turn been attacked by a Russian submarine which (as mentioned earlier in this Chapter) scored two hits. On September 9 a big convoy under Rear-Admiral E. K. Boddam-Wetham,



'JEAN BART' PUT OUT OF ACTION AT CASABLANCA

As part of the Allied assault on Algeria and French Morocco, November 7–11, 1942, Casablanca was bombarded on November 10. Rear-Admiral H. K. Hewitt's forces destroyed all Vichy naval opposition, wiping out an entire flotilla of destroyers and lighter craft, damaging a cruiser and leaving the partially completed 35,000-ton battleship 'Jean Bart,' hit by several bombs, in flames. Damage included a great rent in her bows (above).

Photo, Keystone

with an escort under Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett—flying his flag in H.M.S. "Scylla"—was sighted by enemy aircraft and submarines. The latter attacked and one was damaged. Three days later the U-boat attack was resumed by wolf-pack methods, and on the 13th it was again renewed, combined with aircraft. This attack continued until the convoy reached its destination—with about 30 per cent of its ships sunk. The British carrier-borne planes did excellent work in this action; it was the Germans' first experience of Fleet Air Arm Hurricanes on convoy work, and after the first day they concentrated many attacks on the carrier, without success. Having delivered its charge, the escort took over a homeward convoy and was heavily attacked by submarines. H.M. destroyer "Somali" was torpedoed, and eventually broke her back and sank after being towed for more than three days in bad weather. H.M. minesweeper "Leda" was also sunk.

The other occasion was on the last day of the year, when some of the big German ships came out to attack a convoy off the Norwegian coast. The escorting destroyers were under Captain R. St. V. Sherbrooke in H.M.S. "Onslow," and in spite of the fact that the enemy force, so far as could be made out in semi-darkness, consisted of a 10,000-ton pocket battleship, a cruiser and several destroyers, he immediately attacked and succeeded in repelling four enemy attempts on his charge. Heavier British ships then arrived and the Germans broke off the attack, but H.M. destroyer "Achates" was sunk and the "Onslow" damaged. The Germans admitted having lost a destroyer, but the convoy, whose munitions were very badly needed at the time, got through unscathed. Captain Sherbrooke was badly wounded and lost an eye; he was awarded the V.C. for his gallantry. (See illus., p. 2399.)

Operations against submarines by surface craft and aircraft in cooperation continued all through the period, and even the Germans admitted that the British counter-measures were proving more and more successful and making attack very much more difficult.

In November a very important and very satisfactory phase of the war started with the decisive defeat of the enemy in Egypt, Libya and Cyrenaica, the Allied landing in North Africa, and the start of the Russian offensive. The landings in French North and North-west Africa started on November 8, and in spite of the fact that they involved no fewer than 500 transports, escorted by over 350 men-of-war, secrecy was maintained right down to the actual event, although the enemy naturally knew that large-scale operations were being planned somewhere.

Three separate forces were engaged. One sailed from the United States and was entirely American, destined for Casablanca and French Morocco. The other two sailed from Britain and were mixed British and American, one destined to attack Oran and the other Algiers. Merchant ships of all the Allies were included, and the escort was composed of British, American, Canadian, Polish, Dutch and Norwegian warships with a full quota of aircraft carriers working in cooperation with the R.A.F. Admiral Sir Andrew Cunningham was the Naval Commander-in-Chief.

Allies Land in N. Africa

The stiffest resistance shown by the Vichy forces was at Casablanca, where the battleship "Jean Bart" put up a vigorous defence until she was set on fire. Both Oran and Algiers were defended by stout booms, which had to be broken in face of a very heavy fire from shore batteries before the transports and landing craft could get in. At Algiers the destroyers "Broke" and "Martin" were sacrificed on this job; at Oran the former U.S. Coast Guard cutters "Walney" and "Hartland." Other losses were the corvette "Gardenia," the depot ship "Hecla," the sloop "Ibis," the anti-aircraft escort ship "Tynwald"—normally an Isle of Man excursion steamer—the auxiliary aircraft carrier "Avenger," and the Dutch

destroyer "Isaac Sweers." The Americans also lost five transports, while three others, a destroyer and a tanker were damaged. On the other hand at least 30 U-boats were sunk or damaged in vain attacks on the convoys, while the French lost three destroyers and seven submarines in resisting the landings.

Dakar was not attacked with the other ports, but after an interval it transferred its allegiance to the Fighting French, together with a number of useful warships, and altogether between 200,000 and 300,000 tons of French shipping was put at the disposal of the Allies. This much exceeded the amount of Allied merchant tonnage that was lost, mostly by air attacks on ships in port and by submarine attacks on empty transports returning from the operations.

Turnover at Dakar

Unfortunately the Axis were quicker in seizing Tunisia, and there they made their last stand in Africa, which continued in 1943. The Italian navy was curiously inactive during Allied operations, their politicians later excusing this on the ground that they could not secure oil fuel from Germany whose rulers were, apparently, already suspicious of Italian loyalty. Apart from enemy submarines, the only enemy ships seen were destroyers escorting supply convoys and an occasional cruiser. These convoys were constantly attacked by all arms; on December 2 light forces under Rear-Admiral C. H. J. Harcourt, consisting of three cruisers and two big destroyers, caught an Italian convoy and sank two of the escorting destroyers and four supply ships without casualty or damage, although the destroyer "Quentin" was hit and sunk by aircraft on the way home. Admiralty reports of supply ships sunk by submarines were issued every few days.

On November 11, three days after the Allied landing in North Africa, German and Italian forces invaded unoccupied France "for the purpose of defending Southern France and Corsica from imminent Allied attack." This immediately stiffened French feeling. From Algiers Admiral Darlan appealed by broadcast to the French fleet at Toulon to cross the Mediterranean. On November 12 Germany gave a definite undertaking to Vichy that Toulon would not be occupied, but despite this German troops entered the Toulon area on the 27th, their pretext being that the fleet was about to escape. Admiral de la Borde, the Commander-in-Chief, had already taken steps in anticipation of a German breach of faith, and before German motorized forces could reach the harbour practically all the ships were scuttled. The modern battleships "Strasbourg" and "Dunkerque," the old battleships "Provence" and "Condorcet" with an aircraft carrier, seven cruisers, 28 torpedo craft and 19 submarines were sunk with explosives. Although they were in shallow water salvage was in most cases impossible. Four submarines escaped to join the Fighting French in North Africa, but a fifth was sunk by a mine dropped in her path by a German plane.

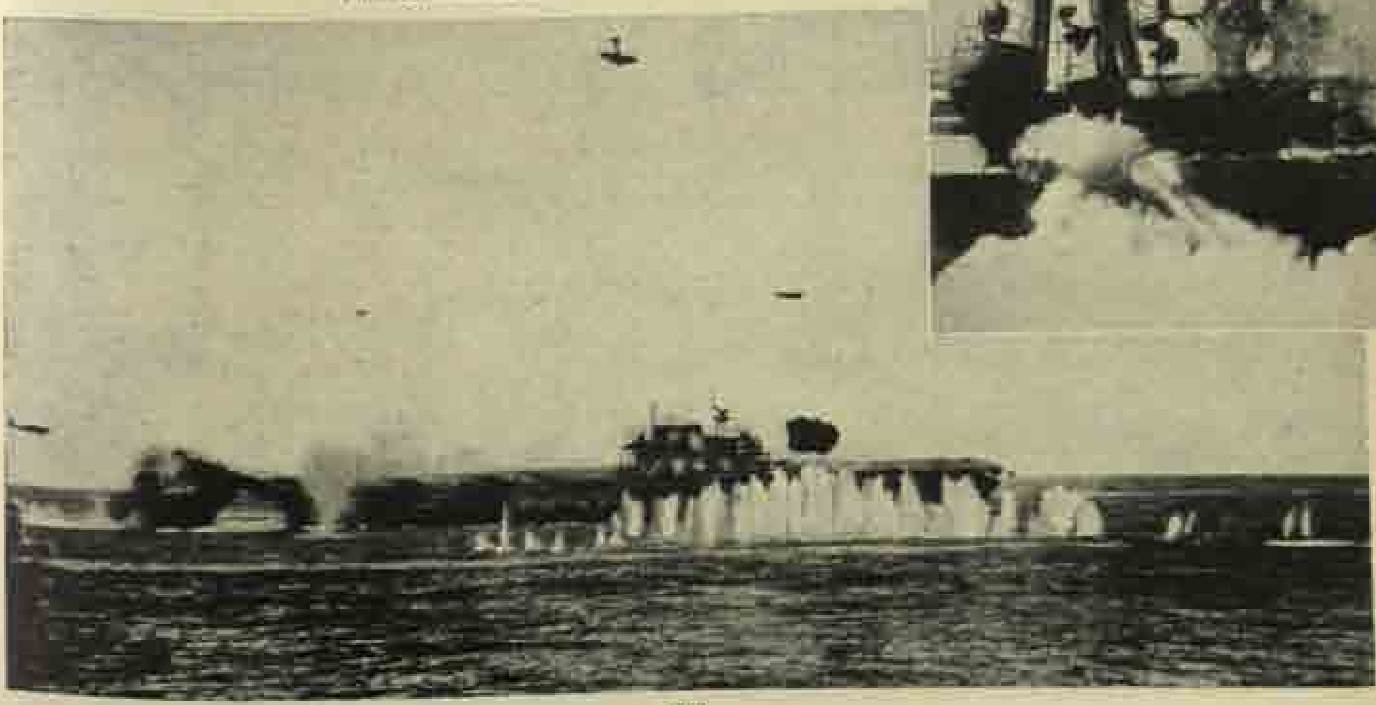
The year ended with Allied prospects at sea better than at any time since the fall of France. Losses had been heavy to all, but the Allies' superiority was growing rapidly and the operational successes in Europe were all working slowly towards the great naval task of beating the Japanese in the Pacific. Among the additions to the United Nations' strength in capital ships was the "Richelieu," the new 35,000-ton French battleship which had been transferred uncompleted to Dakar from Brest in June 1940. She left Dakar at the end of January 1943, and reached New York early in February. In the ensuing months work upon her was completed, and on November 6, 1943, it was announced that she was again in service with the Allied fleets.



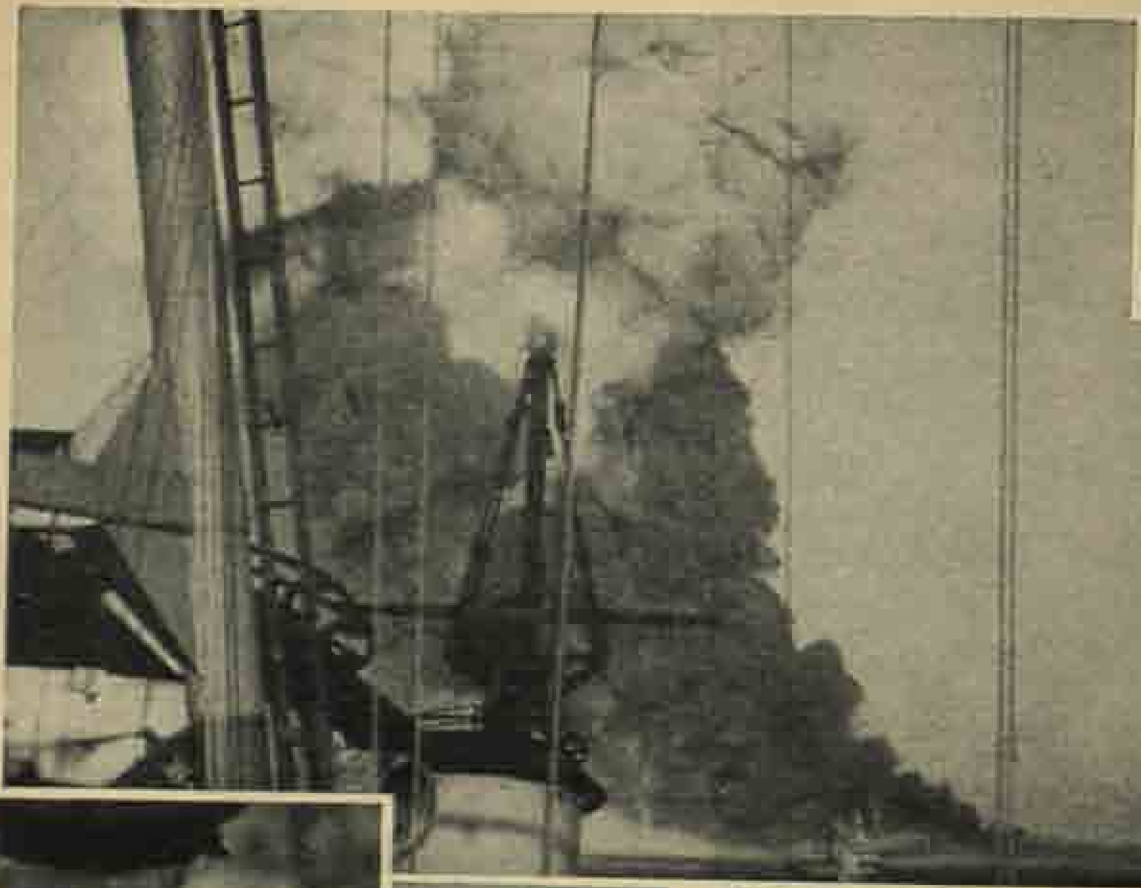
'SUICIDE' DIVE-BOMBER ENDED THE 'HORNET'

The severest American loss in the great battle in the Solomons which raged for several days in October 1942 was the aircraft carrier 'Hornet.' An attack by Japanese dive-bombers (below) culminated in one of the planes (seen top centre in this picture) crashing into her signal bridge (right). Though she escaped sinking, the 'Hornet' was so badly damaged that she had to be sunk off the Santa Cruz (Solomons) Islands on October 26, 1942.

Photos, Associated Press











'OHIO,' THE SHIP THAT WOULD NOT GIVE IN

'Dogged perseverance against all odds' was an eye-witness description of the achievement of the 10,000-ton American tanker 'Ohio,' which reached Malta (5) from Gibraltar in the critical days of August 1942 though torpedoed, dive-bombed and set afire (1) by a Stuka crashing on her deck. Her skipper, Capt. D. W. Mason (2), was awarded the George Cross for his skill and courage, while the D.S.O. was awarded to three other merchantmen skippers in the convoy: Capt. R. Wren (3—shown talking to Rear-Adm. H. M. Burrough who commanded the light forces and close escort), Capt. D. R. MacFarlane (4), and Capt. F. N. Riley.



Chapter 242

ALLIED MERCHANT SHIPPING LOSSES REACH THEIR PEAK

In July 1942 enemy sinkings of Allied merchant shipping attained their highest level since 1939. There was little improvement at the end of the year. Against increasing odds convoys fought their way through to Malta and Russia; in the Atlantic the U-boat menace remained. The work of the men of the Red Ensign makes a glorious chapter in the history of the war at sea

The main battleground of the war on United Nations' shipping during 1942 was the North Atlantic, but after Japan and America entered the struggle in December 1941 no waters were "safe" for Allied seamen. Few other sections of the community knew, as seamen did, what it was to remain, month after month, from one year to another, in the front line of fighting. That was, perhaps, the chief peculiarity of the Merchant Navy's contribution. Some seamen and some ships crossed and recrossed the Atlantic Ocean many times without sighting a submarine—"without incident." In some circumstances, however, a constant threat of violent action, to come like the sudden spring from undergrowth of an angry beast, makes more demand on courage than the fiercest struggle foreseen or sought. Seamen were involved in both sorts of warfare; for there were subsidiary "battlegrounds" on which action could be foreseen without shadow of doubt, and action of a violence and intensity seldom experienced on the main front of the sea war.

Throughout 1942 the Mediterranean and North Russian convoys were faced by the sea and air power of an enemy relatively strong, very determined, and without scruple. They had to sail past the most favourably placed enemy bases. No effort was spared to prevent their passage and by sheer force to bring about two major defeats. The prize was beyond price for the Germans, for the Italian role was a minor one. If Malta could be starved into submission by cutting off the island from supplies of food and military equipment, the situation in the Mediterranean would be transformed. The Germans knew, too, that if they could stop the flow of supplies to Murmansk and Archangel it would ease their task on the Eastern Front.

Siege of Malta Raised

Eighteen months passed and the siege of Malta was raised before it was revealed how desperate had been the plight of the island in those middle months of 1942 when the enemy controlled the Libyan coast and the islands of Sicily and Pantelleria, and Crete in the Eastern Mediterranean. It was then stated that the ships which battled their way to the George Cross Island in June were "the first merchant ships to reach there since the previous February."

The convoy of six ships sailed from the Clyde in June 1942, escorted to Gibraltar by two heavy cruisers and a number of destroyers and sloops; at Gibraltar a battleship and two aircraft carriers were added. On June 14 the first enemy aircraft attacked, in formations of 30 to 50, coming from all directions. The ships' gunners fought stripped to the waist. Thirty enemy aircraft were shot down, some by Hurricanes operating from the aircraft carriers. At night the attack was continued by aircraft and submarines. Air attacks were incessant throughout the rest of the voyage, rising to a peak between Pantelleria and Malta. Four ships went down; only the S.S. "Troilus" and the M.V. "Orari" were left. As these two vessels neared the harbour the "Orari" struck a mine that exploded in the only hold of the ship which held neither petrol nor ammunition. Following close astern of the "Troilus," she limped into port. It was past midnight, but the people of Malta lined the bastions and cheered.

This Malta-bound convoy was only part of probably the largest Mediterranean operations of this nature up to that time; for while the "Orari" and "Troilus" were sailing from the west, another convoy, described as "one of the biggest ever seen in the Mediterranean," was on passage from Alexandria. So furious was the attack anticipated, so desperate the island's plight, that it was necessary in this way to divide the enemy's forces.

Ill-Starred Convoy from Alexandria

The eastern convoy fought through great air battles; it delivered supplies to Tobruk, and met the challenge of a strong Italian naval force. But it never reached Malta; short of fuel, it retired eastwards. Out of all those violent battles and movements of warships Malta received the cargoes of two ships only; but their 20,000 tons of supplies saved the island from capitulation. Malta-based aircraft and submarines



SAFE AT LAST AFTER 20 DAYS OF DREAD

Survivors of the 'Avila Star,' 14,443-ton Blue Star liner sunk off the Azores on July 5, 1942, press forward to the bows of their lifeboat as a line is thrown from the Portuguese sloop 'Pedro Nunes,' which rescued them. For 20 days they had sailed in hope of reaching the African coast and only 25 out of 30 survived. One of them, overcome by his providential escape, died from shock.

Photo, Associated Press

continued to take their heavy toll of Axis convoys carrying supplies to Rommel's army in Libya, and this, in Mr. Churchill's words, was "essential to the whole strategic position in the Mediterranean." (*See also* p. 2086.)

It was the middle of August before another convoy reached Malta. It set out from Gibraltar with a powerful escort of battleships, aircraft carriers, cruisers and destroyers, according to a German news agency "the bulk of the British Mediterranean fleet." Bombing began as soon as the convoy came within range of enemy aerodromes. Here is a passage from an account of the battle by a naval officer:

"U-boats joined in the attack, which continued during the night. Next morning our Fleet Air Arm fighters were off again at crack of dawn, and throughout the day they were almost continuously in the air, as formation after formation came in to attack. I won't attempt to describe that day in detail, because one attack is so like another, but through it all—through the colossal din, the great mushrooms of water as bombs dropped, the blinding flashes of our guns and the thousands of flashes of those from other ships—through all that, and many other things, I am left with one main impression: those merchantmen in the middle, going steadily on and on; at times completely hidden by near misses, but miraculously appearing through the columns of spray, and always, doggedly and stubbornly, going on and on."

In the convoy was the tanker "Ohio," a large American-built ship, carrying the most important and dangerous cargo of all. A tanker, with her short bridge amidships and funnel in the stern, cannot be mistaken from the air. The "Ohio" was singled out by the enemy. This had been expected and the ship was manned by a specially picked British crew, six of the officers and engineers having been decorated previously for bravery at sea. At night the "Ohio" was hit by a torpedo and forced to stop. Steering by hand from aft, without a compass, the tanker somehow caught up the convoy by morning. During the continuous air attacks which were concentrated on the "Ohio" a Stuka, shot out of control, crashed into the vessel. Then the ship was hit by a bomb, set on fire, and her engines partly wrecked. The fire was got under control and the "Ohio" plodded on at a speed of two knots, an easy target. She was hit again and her engines put out of action. She was taken in tow, but the tow parted. With the help of a minesweeper from Malta she made 20 miles at night, but throughout the next day the tanker was bombed continuously and towing became impossible. The next night she reached Malta to discharge her precious cargo practically intact.



WILLIAM LYNN NELSON

Inventor of the anti-torpedo device which helped to save the "Ohio," and many other merchantmen. After 20 years' experience as a sea-going engineer he became Marine Superintendent of the Eagle Oil and Shipping Co., Ltd. The story of his invention was not revealed until late in 1943. *Photo, G.P.U.*

"The violence of the enemy could not deter the master from his purpose. Throughout he showed skill and courage of the highest order, and it was due to his determination that in spite of the most persistent enemy opposition the vessel, with her valuable cargo, eventually reached Malta and was safely berthed."

That was the citation announcing the award of the George Cross to Captain Dudley William Mason, master of the "Ohio," which brought petrol to the George Cross island. Captain David MacFarlane, O.B.E., Captain Frederick Riley, and Captain Richard Wren, in the same convoy, received the first awards of the D.S.O. to be granted to men of the Merchant Navy.

First D.S.O. Awards to Merchant Navy

The "Ohio" was fitted with an important new anti-torpedo device, evolved by Mr. W. L. Nelson and adopted by the Ministry of War Transport in June 1942. It consisted of a compressed air-line, running the full length of the ship, linked at either end to a compressor pump, and having connexions at various points to take air-lines. When the ship was struck by a torpedo the compressor at each end was brought into action, and air forced into the damaged compartments, checking the inrush of water and eventually forcing it out. The invention could also be used to pump sea-water for fire-fighting and to steer a ship temporarily out of action after being torpedoed. In the case of the "Ohio" it was employed to discharge much of her cargo of petrol.

Before the end of the year the situation in the Mediterranean had been transformed following the battle of El Alamein and the landings in North Africa; in the Libyan desert Rommel was in full retreat. On December 23 the Admiralty announced: "In the course of a series of operations, now completed, large reinforcements of war material and supplies have been landed at Malta, without major interference from the enemy." That convoy, sailing from Alexandria, arrived at Malta without the loss of a single ship, neither merchantman nor man-of-war.

The great convoys which carried arms and supplies to Archangel and Murmansk fought their way through attacks just as fierce and determined as those in the Mediterranean. There



S.S. 'CERAMIC' TORPEDOED AND SUNK IN GALE

The 18,000-ton liner "Ceramic," of the Shaw Savill and Albion Co., Ltd., was sunk in November 1942 while bound from England to the Cape. Over 300 persons were aboard her, and of them only one survived. From enemy sources it was learned that the ship was torpedoed during a gale in the North Atlantic and went down before her lifeboats could be launched. Owing to the uncertainty about the survivors the news of the sinking was not published in Britain until October 1943.
Photo, Topical Press

were these differences: the seamen on the northern voyages had also to battle against Arctic weather—sometimes 70 degrees of frost—with spray from near misses that hit the deck as ice. For part of the year there was no darkness in which to gain respite from bombing or to elude the enemy. Winter or summer, vessels on the northern convoy routes could never get more than 300 miles from an enemy coastline studded with bomber bases. For the first time in history ships sailed through the White Sea in winter.

In some of those convoys there was a loss of 50 per cent of supplies. Mr. Charles Jarman, Secretary of the National Union of Seamen, told of an Arctic convoy of 40 ships: 19 were torpedoed and sunk in the space of four hours, another later; 17 were sunk by bombing. Three ships arrived at Murmansk, but of the 1,000 survivors every fit man volunteered to go again.

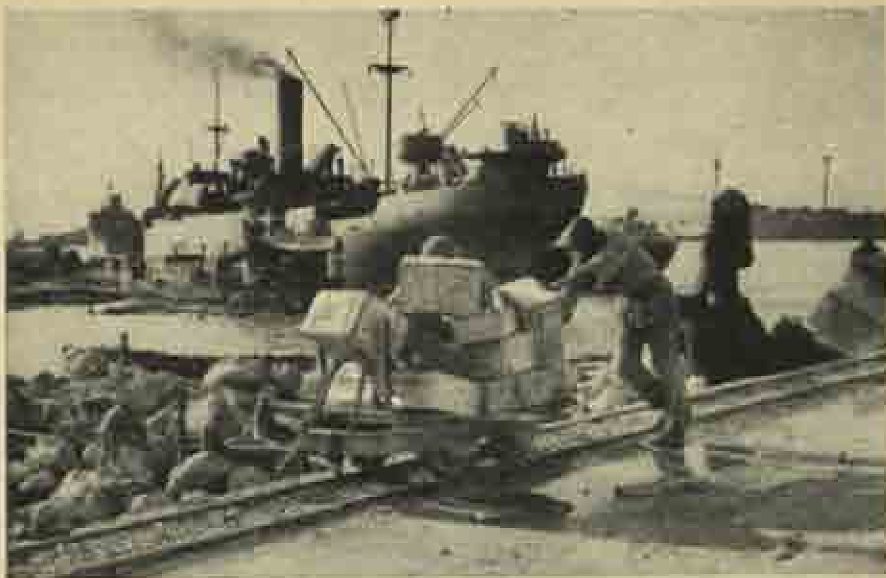
At the end of March 1942 a convoy reached Murmansk after driving off a German destroyer attack and damaging or sinking three submarines. A month later two convoys passed each other in Arctic waters. Among the ice floes five destroyer attacks were beaten off; the losses were comparatively light. Then, at the beginning of June, it was revealed that a large convoy had arrived at a Russian port after incessant attack for five days and nights by enemy aircraft and submarines.

In September the story was told of how "the biggest Russian convoy with the largest destroyer escort ever known" fought its way through what Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett, commanding the escort, described as the "worst torpedo-bombing attack of the war." "Any man who says he wasn't frightened is a b.f.," the Admiral said when it was all over. The Germans first claimed 38 out of 45 ships, but later said that 17 supply ships were sunk. It was stated by the British Foreign Secretary that this convoy delivered in Russia the largest total of munitions yet transported in a single voyage from the United Kingdom and the U.S.A.

Largest Russian Convoy

On December 31 another convoy was steaming through Arctic waters off the North Cape with a comparatively small destroyer escort. In the few hours of twilight an attack was launched by a superior force of cruisers, destroyers and, it was thought, a "pocket" battleship. In snowstorm and semi-darkness an intermittent battle continued for two hours before the arrival of more powerful British forces. The enemy escaped in the low visibility, but the skill and resolution of the British destroyers, under the command of Captain R. St. V. Sherbroke, D.S.O. (who was awarded the V.C.), in H.M.S. "Onslow," had saved the convoy; it arrived without loss or damage (see illus., p. 2399). One of the destroyers, "Achates" (commanded by Lieut.-Commander A. H. Tyndall Johns), was damaged and sunk.

The violent "battlegrounds" of the Mediterranean and northern waters took their toll of United Nations' merchant ships, but it was in the Atlantic that heavy losses continued to be suffered. Following the adoption of the convoy system along the Atlantic seaboard, which had become the U-boats' hunting-ground, the submarines concentrated on

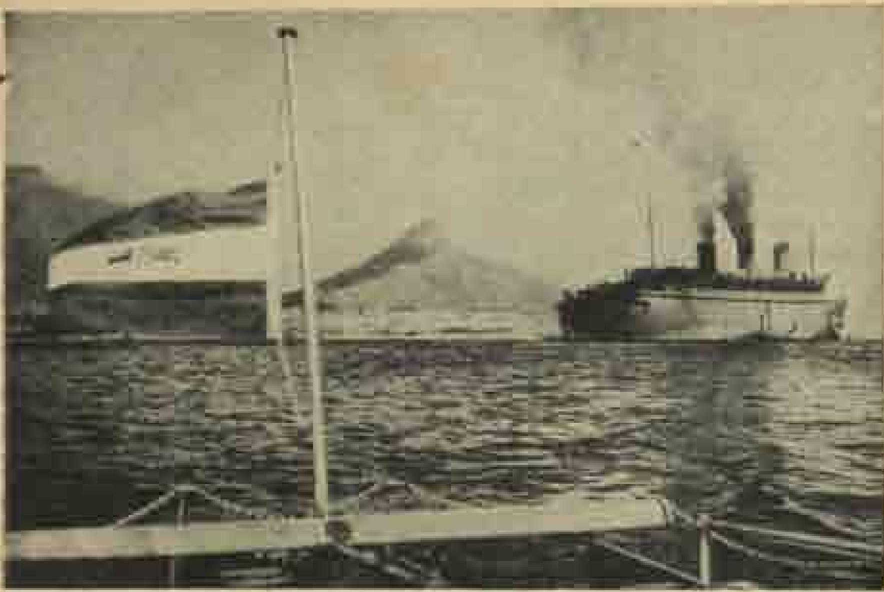


MERCHANT NAVY STOOD BY MONTGOMERY'S MEN

The 'immortal march' of Gen. Montgomery's 8th Army, from the gates of Cairo to the tip of Tunis, could not have been accomplished without the aid of the Merchant Navy which, amid great hazards, maintained their supplies. Above: part of a consignment from Alexandria, unloaded at Benghazi, is being taken on a trolly to an awaiting lorry. Below, typical of the Merchant Navy's hard-working personnel is this fireman on an Africa-bound merchantman.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright





'UTILITY' GARBED 'QUEEN MARY' ON WAR SERVICE

Stripped of her luxury Atlantic trade trappings and decked in plain, grey war paint, the 81,235-ton Cunard White Star liner 'Queen Mary' was used to transport American troops to war zones—an interesting example of the reciprocal character of 'Lease-Lend.' Above, the 'Queen Mary' at anchor in Table Bay, Cape Town, after reducing the Atlantic crossing record to 12 days. (Previously it had been 19 days.)

Photo, Keystone

the mid-Atlantic area, where the convoys were farthest from air bases, or went far afield over the main routes, their range being extended by the use of supply ships, both surface and underwater craft. They continued to attack in packs. Raids were made on routes as widespread as south of Freetown in West Africa, around the Cape of Good Hope, in the approaches to the Mozambique Channel, and off the Brazilian coast.

Losses continued to be announced sporadically from New York and the South American capitals. At the beginning of July a German submarine entered Puerto Limon, in Costa Rica, and torpedoed the Panamanian steamer "San Pablo," which was unloading. Three days later the Mexican Government stated that the tanker "El Cernicalo" had been torpedoed in the Gulf of Mexico. The sinking of the Brazilian steamer "Pedrinhas" was announced on the same day. On July 8 the Argentine Government declared the U.S. and Canadian Atlantic seaboard to be a danger zone for Argentine ships.

Neutral Shipping Losses

A week later the U.S. Navy Department stated that the convoy system had been extended to the Caribbean. On July 18 the Department announced that four ships had been sunk, three American and one British. Three were lost in the Atlantic and one in the Indian Ocean, bombed and later shelled by a Japanese cruiser. On July 26 the Mexican merchant ship "Oaxaca" was sunk.

Sinkings of Brazilian ships (referred to in Chapter 214) continued. On July 30 it was announced that the freighter "Tamandare" had been torpedoed and sunk near Trinidad. By then ten Brazilian merchant ships had been sunk by Axis submarines. On August 17 the Brazilian Government stated that three more ships had been lost—the "Baependy," the "Araraquara" and the "Anibal Benevolo." The next day the loss of the "Arara" and "Itagiba," two more Brazilian ships, was announced. It was later revealed that more than 600 people, including soldiers, had lost their lives in four of these sinkings. Feeling in Brazil ran high and demonstrations were widespread. President Vargas promised that the outrage would be avenged. Aeroplanes were sent to search for and attack U-boats, and it was stated on August 19 that two submarines had probably been destroyed. The same day yet another merchant ship, the "Jacy," was torpedoed and sunk off the Brazilian north-east coast. On August 22, 1942, Brazil declared war upon Germany and Italy.

U-Boats in Gulf of St. Lawrence

When the presence of U-boats in the Gulf of St. Lawrence was disclosed, in May, with the sinking of a merchant ship, it was added that any possible future sinkings in this area would not be made public, so as not to give information to the enemy. Nevertheless, following a question in the Canadian House of Commons, it was officially stated on July 13 that three ships had been torpedoed and sunk in these waters, with the loss of eight lives. Then, early on October 14, the passenger ship "Caribou," sailing across the Cabot Strait from Nova



'STILL MORE SHIPS!' CALL WAS ANSWERED

British shipbuilders did splendid work in 1942. The demand by the Navy and the Merchant Service for more and yet more ships was answered so magnificently that Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, British Minister of Production, was able to declare on January 29, 1943, that production of merchant shipping in 1942 was 'substantially greater' than in 1941. Above, cargo ship and tanker building alongside each other in the fitting-out basin.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

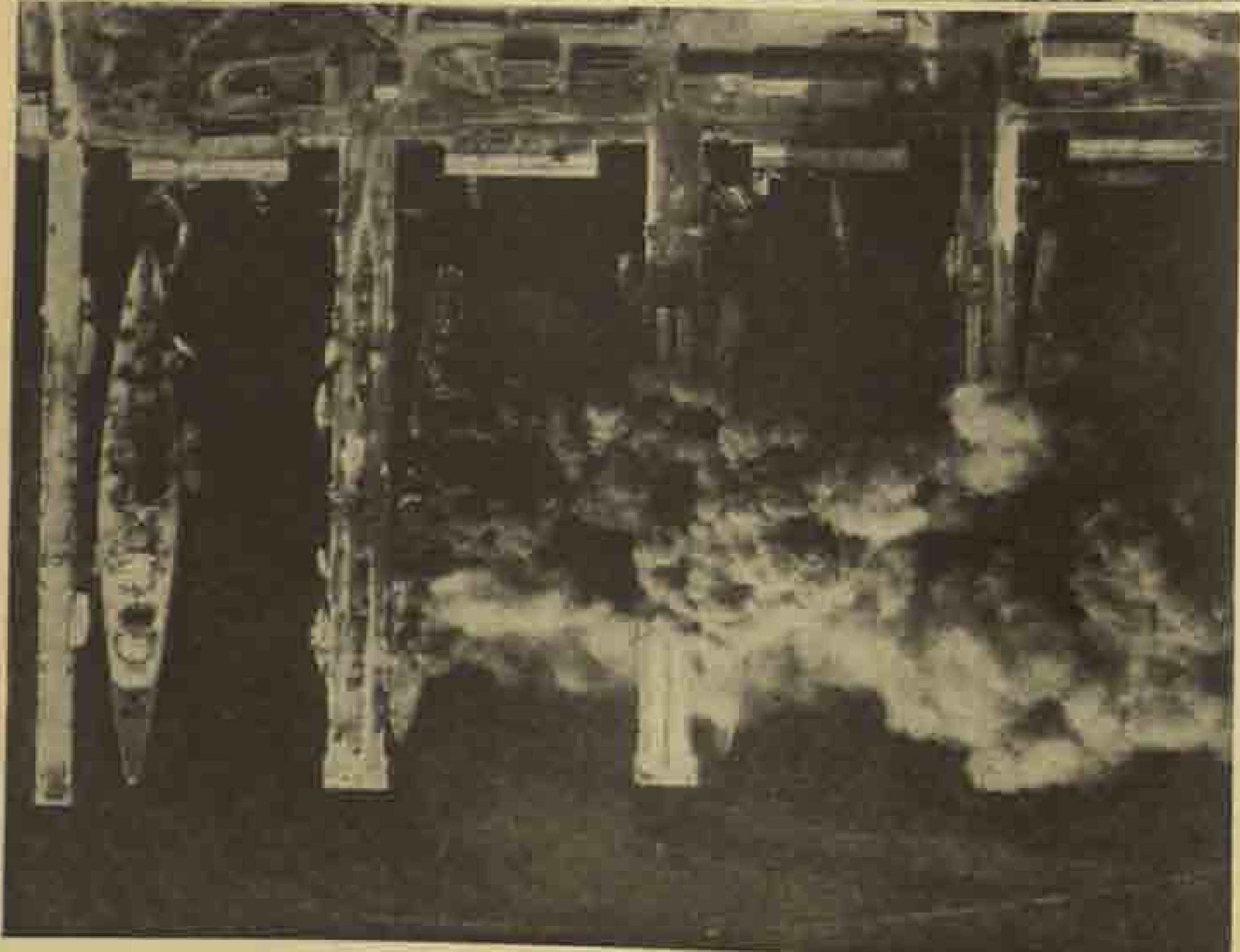


BATTLE OF THE NORTH CAPE HERO AND HIS SHIP

On the last day of 1942 a British convoy to Russia escorted by destroyers commanded by Capt. R. St. V. Sherbrooke, D.S.O., R.N. (inset), in H.M.S. "Onslow," encountered a greatly superior enemy force. The convoy got through unharmed, but the 'Onslow' was badly damaged—her funnel and bridge are shown above. H.M. destroyer 'Achates' was sunk. Capt. Sherbrooke was awarded the V.C. for his great gallantry in the action.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Planet News





NAZIS BALKED OF A RICH PRIZE: THE FRENCH FLEET

On November 27, 1942, Adm. de Laborde gave the order to scuttle the French Fleet at Toulon. Vanguard tanks of the enemy arrived on the quayside (top), only to watch the destruction helplessly. Aerial photographs of the harbour next day revealed (left to right) the battle-cruiser 'Strasbourg,' a Suffren class cruiser (on fire), an Algérie cruiser, and a La Galissonnière cruiser, all partly submerged. "From the flames and smoke of the explosions at Toulon," said Mr. Churchill on November 29, "France will rise again."

Photos, British Official; Keystone



BATTLESHIPS GUARDED THE NORTH AFRICAN INVASION ARMADA

The landings in Algeria and French Morocco on the night of November 7-8, 1942, were effected by what Allied G.H.Q., North Africa, called 'the largest armada ever used for a single military operation.' It was escorted by powerful units of the Royal Navy and the U.S. Navy. Here the battleships H.M.S. 'Duke of York' and H.M.S. 'Nelson' and the aircraft carrier H.M.S. 'Formidable' are seen from another carrier, H.M.S. 'Victorious' (foreground), on the flight deck of which Seafires are ranged. All were part of the protecting force *Photo, British Official*



EYE-WITNESS IMPRESSIONS OF THE DIEPPE RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE

Above, the general scene as the raiding armada neared the shore. Water spouts caused by enemy bombs and pillars of smoke from vessels afire dwarf the little ships and their gallant complements. Below, the withdrawal of No. 4 Commando from Vasterival is taking place down the right-hand of the two gullies under cover of a smoke screen. Loose boulders prevent the landing craft getting in close; the L.C.A. on the right takes aboard a casualty through the folding canvas vault. Two FW-190's are attacking ineffectually; actually there were no casualties.

(Top) From the painting by Richard Eurich. Crown Copyright. (Bottom) From an original drawing by Bryan Mullen



Scotia to Newfoundland, was torpedoed. She went down with the loss of 137 people, including 16 women and 14 children, and a number of Royal Navy seamen.

Another tragic loss of this period was that of the "Avila Star," a Blue Star liner of 14,443 tons gross, torpedoed off the Azores on July 5. She was carrying women passengers and volunteers from Argentina for the British forces. The ship was attacked by two submarines. Fortunately, the weather was calm and passengers and crew took to the boats, with the exception of about 20 men and some of the officers, who went down with the ship.

At first the five lifeboats stayed together; but after two days two of the boats were three or four miles ahead of the others, and it was decided to carry on in an effort to reach the nearest land. The remaining three boats were discovered by a Portuguese naval vessel three days later, and 110 survivors were rescued. The two lifeboats sailed on, but eventually parted company because of the rough weather and steered on different courses. One was never heard of again; the other sailed and drifted for 20 days and nearly 1,000 miles. Out of 39 people 25 survived to tell a story of extraordinary hardships, of despair and mental and physical exhaustion which claimed many lives, and of the final rescue by a Portuguese sloop.

Loss of the 'Avila Star'

Among the worst disasters of the war, occurring in November, but not revealed until nearly a year later, was the sinking of the 18,000-ton British passenger liner "Ceramic," bound from England for Cape Town. Only one survivor, a prisoner of the Germans, was heard of; there were more than 500 people on board. According to the German version the liner was torpedoed during a gale in the North Atlantic and sank in heavy seas before the lifeboats could be launched.

Some of the losses and some of the dramas of the war against shipping were told, but it was seldom that anything was said of the successful voyages of individual ships. Months later, however, a little was revealed of the magnificent services during 1942 of Britain's "second" liner, the 81,235 ton "Queen Mary," of the Cunard White Star. "Tens of thousands of troops," it was disclosed, were carried in 1942 by the "Queen Mary." Packed with soldiers—between 12,000 and 20,000—she played an important part in building up the strength of the Middle East forces which made possible the victory at El Alamein. Once she was said to have steamed through a pack of submarines, saved by her speed. On another occasion her position was wirelessed to a waiting U-boat by Nazi spies in Brazil. The discovery, according to the reports, was made in the nick of time, and the "Queen Mary" was advised of the trap which awaited her.



LOADING THE P.A.C. ROCKET
Used to defend merchant ships against air attack, the Parachute-and-Cable Rocket projects a parachute with cable attached into the sky in the path of the plane, which is thus forced to take evasive action to avoid entanglement in the 'wire barrage.'
Photo, Associated Press

There was further news of the activities of German surface raiders during the second half of 1942. Early in July an American ship wirelessed that she was being attacked by a raider in the Caribbean Sea. In August the presence of a German in the South Atlantic Ocean was disclosed; a few days later it was reported that the raider was being chased by an American cruiser, but had apparently escaped. Then, on August 19, the U.S. Navy Department confirmed the reports after survivors of an American ship, sunk off the coast of Africa in mid-July, had reached port. The German vessel was said to be a converted merchant ship of 8,000 to 9,000 tons, mounting six guns, some of them of 8-in. calibre, and carrying motor torpedo-boats.

Nothing more was heard until December, when an American communiqué told how a U.S. merchant ship had fought a lone battle with two surface raiders in the South Atlantic. Outgunned, the vessel put up an astonishing fight; she sank one of the enemy and badly damaged the other before going down with 31 of her crew, her guns firing to the last. There were 14 survivors of this gallant action, including five men of a navy gun crew.

In January 1943 the Nazi radio described the sinking of "the German auxiliary cruiser 'Atlantis' by the British cruiser 'Devonshire' on a tropical day in November." It was stated that the raider had been at sea for 655 days and had covered almost 100,000 miles. In January, also, Vice-Admiral Ingram, commander of the American naval forces in the South Atlantic, announced that an enemy surface raider had been scuttled in the previous month rather than face combat with "our overwhelming forces." Two blockade runners, one of 10,000 tons, were intercepted in the Atlantic by

Surface Raiders Active

WHAT HAPPENED WHEN AN AMMUNITION SHIP BLEW UP
The deadliest as well as probably the most vital cargo in the convoys to Russia was carried in the ammunition ships, a direct hit on one of which meant sudden and certain death for the crew and the shattering of the vessel to fragments. The explosion recorded below, however, took avenging toll of the enemy; three attacking aircraft were destroyed by the blast.
Photo, Associated Press



British naval ships in December: both ships were scuttled.

Still the U-boat remained the principal enemy of the United Nations' shipping; the problem was one of defence and attack. Mr. Churchill was able to state at the beginning of September that "our warfare on the U-boats has been more successful than in any former period in the war." He added that very few days had passed without one or more being sunk or damaged by the Allies. More than half of these successful attacks, it was disclosed on another occasion, were made by aircraft.

Mr. A. V. Alexander, First Lord of the Admiralty, stated that new methods had been developed in the war on the U-boats and new devices were in action. Towards the end of September he revealed that from the beginning of the war up to that time more than 530 Axis submarines had been sunk or damaged. In addition, the bomber offensive against U-boat building yards and bases was steadily increased.

In November Admiral Sir Max K. Horton, K.C.B., D.S.O., succeeded Admiral Sir Percy Noble, K.C.B., C.V.O., as C.-in-C. Western Approaches. In the same month Sir Stafford Cripps, Minister of Aircraft Production, was appointed deputy chairman to the Prime Minister on a committee studying new methods of combating the U-boat menace. The "Battle of the Atlantic Committee," set up by Mr. Churchill in February 1941, was reconstituted in somewhat different form as the "Anti-U-Boat Warfare Committee." Besides Mr. Churchill and Sir Stafford Cripps, membership of the Committee included the Minister of Production, the First Lord of the Admiralty, Secretary of State for Air, Minister of War Transport, the First Sea Lord, and the Chief of the Air Staff, with technical advisers as required. Meetings were held normally once a week from the beginning of November. Mr. Churchill explained that the Committee did not in any way supersede or replace "the regular and systematic control of anti-U-boat warfare by the Admiralty."

A year later (November 6, 1943) it was revealed that Captain C. P. Clarke, R.N., had been for two years Director of Operations against the U-boats, and, in the words of Mr. A. V. Alexander, "had an important share in the great success we have hewn out of the massive danger which confronted us."

At the close of the year the U-boat was still the primary preoccupation of Anglo-American strategy, for it was recognized, and confirmed at the Casablanca conference in January, that the "defeat of the U-boat and the improvement of the margin of shipbuilding resources are the prelude to all aggressive operations." (The words are Mr. Churchill's.)

The defeat of the U-boat had not been accomplished. For a week in July shipping losses reached their highest level since the beginning of the war, greatly exceeding the rate of construction. It was stated by the War Shipping Administration in Washington that goods were being left at the quayside because of lack of ships. The Germans claimed 815,900 tons sunk, and it was not until December that losses fell noticeably, and one month's record meant little.



EVEN THE LITTLE SHIPS HIT BACK

The mate of a trawler stands to at the vessel's Lewis gun; there is an enemy raider about. Whether engaged in their normal occupation of fishing, or in the more hazardous task of minesweeping, these little craft shared the manifold perils which beset their larger brethren.

Photo, Daily Mirror

From August onwards new tonnage exceeded the sinkings. American output rose from nearly 800,000 tons deadweight (equivalent to about 520,000 tons gross) in August to the delivery of 121 ships of 1,199,300 tons deadweight in December, bringing the year's total up to the target figure of 8,000,000 tons deadweight. Production in December alone was little short of the record for the whole of the year 1941. Britain and Canada added to the total. The goal for American shipbuilding in 1943 was then double the 1942 total. At the beginning of December, however, Mr. C. D. Howe, Canadian Minister of Munitions, declared that the Battle of the Atlantic was still in its most dangerous phase. For the year 1942 the net tonnage loss was in the region of 1,000,000 gross.

This serious gap for the year as a whole would have been reduced but for the decision to invade North Africa. This campaign involved a switchover from merchant shipbuilding to the construction of special landing craft both in Britain and in the United States. It involved alterations in Britain to more than 300 ordinary merchant ships for use as troop carriers, cased petrol carriers, floating workshops and store-issuing ships.

The first stages of the elaborate planning required for an operation the greatest of its kind ever undertaken were begun as early as July. The task was entrusted to Admiral Sir Bertram Ramsay, who carried out the Dunkirk evacuation in 1940. Something like 500 merchant ships, British, American, Norwegian, Dutch and Polish, were gathered at different points. Fast cargo ships, great liners carrying troops, Liberty ships bringing supplies, followed by little coastal ships to serve the smaller ports—the majority were British. They sailed from many ports in Britain and the United States; they assembled at various places in the Atlantic; they gathered at Gibraltar. And early in November this vast armada landed half a million men, tanks, lorries, stores and ammunition—all the paraphernalia of a modern army—and landed them with astonishing success.

It was a triumph of secret organization. That the enemy was utterly deceived is beyond doubt. The greatest deception was the provision of so large a tonnage of merchant ships for offensive purposes when the United Nations were short of ships as of nothing else. Surprise allowed the troops and equipment to be landed with very little loss. Then, in the words of the Secretary of the National Union of Seamen, "the Hun got over his surprise and turned hell loose on those ships."

DIEPPE: A RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE

Challenging the enemy where he was regarded as being at his strongest on the Channel Coast, the Dieppe raid taught the Allies lessons which later proved invaluable in North Africa, Sicily and Italy. Gordon Holman, who here analyses the operation, knows Combined Operations work from personal experience; he accompanied the St. Nazaire raid, described in Chapter 226

As the warm summer night closed over a South of England port on August 18, 1942, the Hunt class destroyer "Fernie" put to sea. She left a scene of much activity and as she slid out of the harbour the clear ringing of a hunting horn echoed across the water. "Fernie" was sounding the battle-cry and, amplified by her loud hailer, it carried to the ears of over 5,000 men about to go forth to battle. By the time daylight came they had thrown their challenge at the Germans in one of the enemy's most strongly held positions—Dieppe.

Like the starter's flag, "Fernie's" hunting horn marked the moment for which men had hoped and planned and trained over a long period, with grimly settled purpose. In the next few hours they were to fight their way into history—and the price to be paid was not a light one.

Dieppe has been described variously as a Raid, a Combined Operation, and a Reconnaissance in Force. The last is undoubtedly the best description. Although the greatest success of the day was gained by the R.A.F., and the Navy played its part most gallantly, both these Services would be the first to admit that they only functioned in support of the troops who carried out the landings.

The question that has been most frequently asked since that summer's day when a startled England—and perhaps an even more startled Germany—first heard the news that British troops were fighting again on French soil, is, "Was it worth it?" The whole of this Chapter might be devoted to answering that one question but, briefly and generally, the reply is "Most definitely, yes." Dieppe was the key to North Africa, Sicily and Salerno, and although it was a high price that the gallant Canadians had to pay when they set foot in France, the final dividend was out of all proportion even to that great sacrifice.

Importance of the Raid

The Canadians themselves, in giving the objectives of the operation, revealed its very great importance. In an official report issued a month after the attack they said: "The United Nations have an agreed offensive policy. In the preparation and development of such a policy the acquisition of the fullest possible information concerning the enemy's strength and dispositions, and every other element in the situation affecting the conduct of operations against him, is a matter of the most fundamental importance. Such information is available from many sources, but it is frequently the case that facts essential to the successful prosecution of offensive operations can only be gained by fighting for them. The Dieppe operation must be regarded in this light. . . . It was considered most important that our forces should have an opportunity for practical experience in the landing on an enemy-occupied coast of a large military force, and in particular in the problems arising out of the employment in such a force of heavy armoured fighting vehicles."

There were, of course, many other considerations, but in giving us the answers to these primary questions Dieppe played as important a part as any individual operation in the war.

The first plans for the attack were laid in the month of April and a number of places on the French coast were carefully studied as possible objectives before Dieppe was finally selected. We were not looking for soft spots; we were aiming to trade blows with the enemy in order to test thoroughly his strength.

As soon as the outline plan was ready it was placed before the Chiefs of Staff committee. It received their approval and the next step was to choose the troops for the undertaking. The Canadians, many of whom had been waiting impatiently for more than two years for the chance to meet the enemy, were selected. Before it was agreed that they should be employed the G.O.C.-in-C. First Canadian Army, Lt.-Gen. A. G. L. McNaughton, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., studied the plan and satisfied himself that the objectives were vital to the agreed offensive policy and that the means available were likely to be adequate for the task in hand.

Canadians Were Selected

Canadian military plans, in the hands of Major-General J. H. Roberts, were concerted with the Chief of Combined Operations, Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten. Two other Force



Maj.-Gen. J. H. ROBERTS, M.C., D.S.O.
Canadian military commander in the Dieppe raid, August 18, 1942. He directed operations from an H.Q. ship, remaining on the bridge throughout though constantly exposed to shore-battery fire and air attack. He was awarded the D.S.O. for his brilliant leadership.



Capt. J. HUGHES HALLETT, D.S.O., R.N.
His "daring and resolution" while in command of the naval forces employed in the raid earned him the D.S.O. A torpedo specialist, he later commanded the cruiser "Jamaica," which finally sank the German battleship "Scharnhorst" off the North Cape on December 26, 1943.



Air Vice-Marshal T. LEIGH-MALLORY, C.B., D.S.O.
In charge of air operations throughout the raid. His men were sent on more than 2,000 sorties and accounted for 170 of the enemy at a cost of 98: "an extremely satisfactory air battle," according to Mr. Churchill. In November 1942 he was promoted C.-in-C. Fighter Command.

Photos, Canadian Official; Bassano; Sport & General



WORK OF THE ROYAL AIR FORCE AT DIEPPE

The contribution of the R.A.F. to the success of the Dieppe raid began some days before the action: reconnaissance planes brought back detailed photographs of the waterfront to assist the raiders. In the one below, workmen (top left) are seen scurrying to shelter as the plane dives to take a most valuable and informative picture. Above, during the actual operations an R.A.F. Boston releases two bombs while, far below, destroyers lay a smoke screen to cover the approach of the landing craft.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



Commanders were chosen—Captain J. Hughes Hallett, for the Navy, and Air Vice-Marshal T. Leigh-Mallory, for the R.A.F.

While the Force Commanders, aided by their staffs and Combined Operations Headquarters, developed the final plan in the most elaborate detail, the troops were being prepared. Naturally, they were in complete ignorance of the task before them but "there was something in the air" that seemed to give them a fresh enthusiasm. Twice they carried out full-dress rehearsals of the actual attack while staff officers anxiously checked times and synchronization.

The Canadian military force involved was composed basically of large elements of a Canadian Division, and a battalion of the 1st Canadian Army Tank Brigade. With them were the 3rd, 4th and Royal Marine "A" Commandos and small detachments of United States Rangers and Fighting French troops.

The naval force had no vessels larger than destroyers and for the most part consisted of landing craft of various types and support craft.

It was hoped that the enemy would react strongly to the attack, not only on the ground but in the air, and the R.A.F. prepared for a major battle. Units were drawn from all operational commands of the Air Force and these were joined by Canadian, American, New Zealand, Polish, Czech, Norwegian, Belgian and French squadrons. This foresight made possible one of the most remarkable United Nations' victories of the war in the air. In the early hours of the morning of August 19 the 9th and 13th minesweeping flotillas led an armada of more than 200 vessels towards the French coast. Every possible precaution had been taken to maintain secrecy because surprise was all-important to the venture.

At 3.47 a.m. a tragic misadventure befell the expedition. Only seven miles from the French coast the left flank of the Force, which had moved into its assault positions, ran into a small enemy convoy—a tanker and escort. A minor battle developed

Ill-Luck Attends No. 3 Commando

which would have been of no consequence whatsoever if it had not robbed the attack of the element of surprise. Indeed, it only achieved that effect on the left flanking forces, but in an operation with units as interdependent as they were at Dieppe it was little short of disastrous. If No. 3 Commando, bound for Berneval, which was primarily concerned, had not had this ill-fortune and had been able to function with the same degree of success as No. 4 Commando on the right flank, the operation would have been much less costly and infinitely more successful. But such things are the fortune of war, and luck was certainly against that very gallant company of attackers.

As a result of the unexpected sea conflict the landing craft carrying No. 3 Commando were scattered and many were damaged. Twenty-five minutes after they were due six craft made a landing in broad daylight on one beach and one arrived at another beach. The larger section was met with murderous fire and although the men went forward





MEN WHO LED THE COMMANDOS AWARDED THE D.S.O.

Nos. 3 and 4 Commandos were respectively on the left and right flanks of the invading force. When ill-luck disorganized and decimated the former, Maj. Peter Young, D.S.O., M.C. (left) took charge of the remnant of 19 men and made a gallant but vain attempt to silence the Berneval battery. No. 4 was under the command of Lt.-Col. Lord Lovat (right—comparing notes with another officer on their return). This unit effectively silenced the Varengeville battery.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

with the utmost bravery, led by Captain R. L. Wills, and, later, by Lieut. E. D. Loustalot of the United States Rangers, they were gradually overwhelmed by vastly superior forces. The smaller party consisted of Major Peter Young, two officers and 17 men. Their arms were 10 rifles, a Bren gun, six tommy-guns, three pistols, two mortars and a few bombs. They knew that the battery they had to attack was manned by at least 200 of the enemy. Still they set out to find a way to the top of the cliff and thence to Berneval where the battery was located. A frontal attack was out of the question so the Commando remnant determinedly sniped the enemy for nearly two hours, so harassing him that, at one point, he turned a 5.9-in. coast defence gun on them at point-blank range. When their ammunition was exhausted and after they had seriously interfered with the fire from the powerful German battery, without, unhappily, being able to stop it altogether, they withdrew and were picked up on the beach by the undaunted Navy craft under the command of Lieut. H. T. Buckee, R.N.V.R.

A very brief outline of the whole plan of attack will show what it meant to the main force when sheer bad luck prevented No. 3 Commando getting in to silence the Berneval battery.

The Number One objective was Dieppe itself, but the Germans had the town and its seaward approaches covered by a number of batteries on the cliff-top to left and right. These included two heavy batteries between four and five miles away on each side of Dieppe, at Berneval and Varengeville respectively. If these remained in action they would be able to pour a most damaging fire on our forces both in the town and off-shore. The Commandos, therefore, were given the task of silencing them. No. 4 Commando, led by Lieut.-Col. Lord Lovat, had the right flank (Varengeville) and No. 3 Commando, under Lieut.-Col. Durnford Slater, as already stated, had Berneval as their objective. Inside these two extremes there were to be two other flank attacks, at Puits and Pourville, where the enemy had additional batteries. The fire-power in all these positions, with the possible exception of Pourville, was sufficient to menace the whole success of the expedition.

The two Canadian regiments chosen for the main assault on Dieppe itself were the Essex Scottish, who were to land on the beach to the east of the Esplanade, and the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry, who were to tackle the west end. The Puits attack was in the hands of the Royal Regiment of Canada; and the South Saskatchewan Regiment was to storm Pourville. In reserve were the Fusiliers Mont Royal and the Royal Marine Commando. The Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders of Canada were to act as a second wave at Pourville and, passing through the South Saskatchewan Regiment, go on to attack the airfield at St. Aubin.

To return to the action itself; we have seen how the left flank attack failed, the German battery never being put out of action. On the opposite flank there



Lt.-Col. C. C. I. MERRITT, V.C.

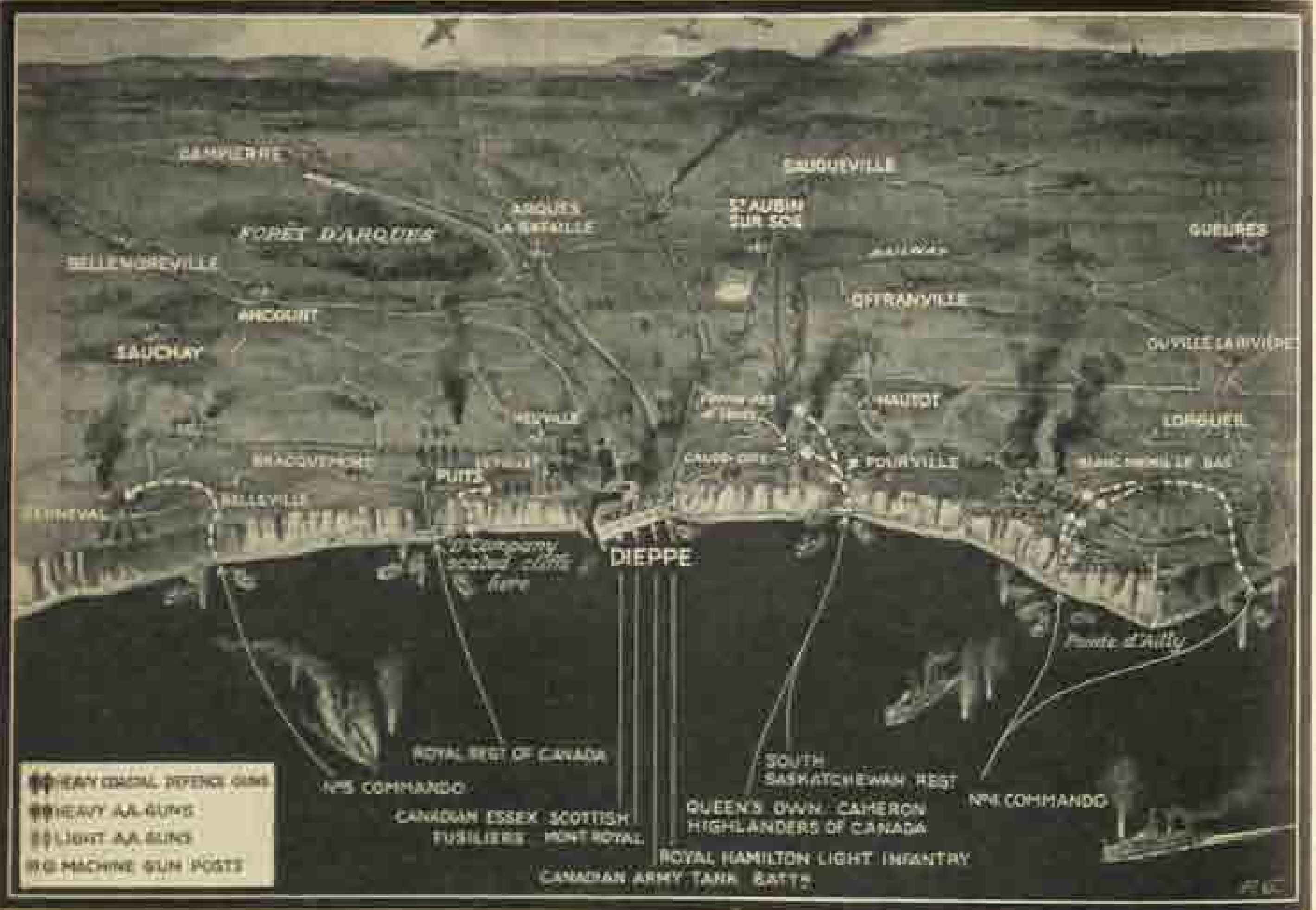
He received his award for his inspiring nonchalance under heavy fire while leading his men to the taking of a bridge (see p. 2410). Cited as "a most gallant officer," he commanded the South Saskatchewan Regiment in the Pourville attack, and was made a prisoner of war.



Capt. P. A. PORTEOUS, V.C.

Detailed to act as Liaison Officer between two detachments who were allocated the destruction of the heavy coast defence guns at Varengeville, he took command of one which became leaderless and successfully led the attack in the face of withering fire though twice severely wounded.

Photos, Press Portrait Bureau; Keystone



DISTRIBUTION OF FORCES AND THEIR OBJECTIVES AT DIEPPE

The assault took place at six main points along the 11-mile stretch of coast between Berneval and Varengeville, with Dieppe in the centre as the main objective. The beach in front of Dieppe was a narrow strip of sand backed by an 8–10 ft. seawall and an esplanade. Cliffs to east and west provided admirable cross-fire positions for the enemy. At Puits and Pourville the ground was low, and fair beaches permitted landings from which penetrations of the interior could be made. Berneval and Varengeville were both fortified by important coastal batteries. The general German plan of defence was that of highly fortified strongpoints, supplemented by echelons of mobile reserves.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Félix Gardon*

was a very different story. Lord Lovat's Commando was far enough away from No. 3 Commando to know little of the unfortunate meeting with the German vessels. Fortunately, too, what was happening off Berneval did not alarm the enemy manning the Varengeville guns.

Right on time—at 4.50 a.m.—the landing-craft carrying No. 4 Commando grounded on the shingle at the foot of the tall cliffs. Only at the very last moment did a German machine-gun open up on the British, but the raiders were out of the boats and under cover of the cliffs before the enemy obtained a good sight on them. A way had to be found to the top of the cliffs and it was known that it would almost certainly have to be up one of two cracks. The first of these was found to be solidly packed with barbed-wire but the second had not been properly prepared and the Commando men, using bangalore torpedoes to destroy such obstructions as had been placed there, soon cut a way through.

There was a measure of the luck that was sadly lacking for No. 3 Commando in this comparatively easy ascent. And there was another stroke of luck at the same time for No. 4, because as they exploded their bangalore torpedoes four-cannon Hurricanes roared overhead, and in the general confusion, the Germans failed to identify the explosions.

So the Commando men pushed on, knowing that another party had landed a little to the east, at Vasterival, and were due to open the assault on the six 5.9-in. guns in the German battery. This section, under Major D. Mills-Roberts, had made very good progress and before 6 a.m. had opened small arms fire on the enemy gunners. Before the Germans could counter this attack, the Commando men had set up their mortars and, almost at once, scored a heavy success. A mortar shell hit the charges stacked alongside the German guns and a blinding flash and a big explosion marked the end of the guns.

Lord Lovat's Assault

At 6.20 a Very light signal indicated the opening of Lord Lovat's assault from the west. His troops had pushed inland for about a mile after landing and now waited for a low-level Spitfire attack on the battery before rushing the position. The Spitfires came right on time and then the Commando men went forward with the bayonet. Two officers leading the charge, which had to be made over 250 yards of open ground, were killed. Captain P. A. Porteous, R.A., although he had already been wounded, took their place and was one of the first to reach the guns, although he had by then been wounded in both thighs. The German garrison, with the exception of four men taken prisoner, was wiped out. Captain Porteous was subsequently awarded the Victoria Cross.

The withdrawal of No. 4 Commando was completed in excellent order. Before leaving, the British dead (two officers and nine other ranks) were laid near the guns they had helped to capture, under the Union Jack.

Meanwhile, the inner flank attack on the left, at Puits, had run into very strong





ROYAL NAVY'S SHARE IN DIEPPE COMBINED OPERATIONS

Transporting men and tanks, bombarding shore batteries and shooting down enemy aircraft were among the services rendered at Dieppe by the Royal Navy. (Above) From a landing craft approaching the shore fires are seen burning in the town. (Left) Motor launches and tank landing craft move in, while (below) the invasion fleet dashes for the beaches under cover of a heavy smoke screen. The only major British naval loss was the destroyer 'Berkeley,' which was so damaged that it had to be sunk.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Planet News



opposition. As soon as the Royal Regiment of Canada set foot on shore they were met with withering fire. The naval engagement which had involved No. 3 Commando had caused the Royal Regiment to alter course with the result that they arrived 20 minutes late at Puits. The enemy were all ready for them. The Canadians, led by Lieut.-Col. D. E. Catto, attacked through a deadly cross-fire and suffered heavy casualties. Even those who reached the sea wall, 50 yards from the water's edge, found no shelter from the well-placed and heavily defended German guns. Captain G. A. Browne, who, as Forward Observation Officer, was to have directed the supporting fire from the destroyer "Garth," described the scene in these words: "Owing to the heavy and accurate fire of the enemy, the Royal Regiment was changed in five minutes from an assault battalion on the offensive to something less than two companies on the defensive, pinned down by fire from positions they could not discover."

The Royal Regiment tried desperately to achieve some measure of success, and there were many gallant actions on the part of individuals and isolated groups. Lieut. W. G. R. Wedd, for instance, rushed a German pillbox single-handed and killed all the occupants with well-aimed grenades, but was himself killed in the attack. Eventually, it was decided that what remained of the Royal Regiment should be withdrawn and the Navy went in without thought of themselves in an endeavour to take off the soldiers. They were under heavy fire, and one landing craft received a direct hit, but still some of her occupants were rescued.

The fact remained, however, that the headland immediately east of Dieppe was never cleared of the enemy and this undoubtedly had a considerable effect on the landings on the main beaches.

The importance of surprise was once again made clear in the other inner flank attack. The South Saskatchewan Regiment, commanded by Lieut.-Colonel C. C. I. Merritt, arrived at Pourville beach only five minutes after zero hour and went ashore without encountering very much opposition. They at once drove inland and captured their first objectives. Resistance became fiercer as the Canadians pushed on, but they had tasted success and were not going to be easily stopped. German pillboxes were cleaned up in the most determined manner, Private Charles Sawden rushing one single-handed and killing all its six occupants.

The men from Saskatchewan fought their way through Pourville only to be held up by heavy mortar and machine-gun fire when they reached the bridge over the river Scie. It was then that their Colonel arrived and gave them the inspired leadership which won for him the Victoria Cross. The incident is vividly described by Wallace Reyburn, the Canadian war correspondent who was present.*

"As the men got ready to tackle the bridge again," he wrote, "an officer came walking up the street. It was Colonel Merritt. He stopped and spoke to us, taking his tin hat off and mopping the perspiration off his brow as he did so.

"'What's the trouble?' he asked.

"'That bridge is a hot spot, sir. We are trying to get across it.'

"'Okay, come with me.'

"Merritt walked out into the middle of the street again and said, 'Now, men, we're going to get across this bridge. Follow me. Don't bunch up. Spread out. Here we go!'

"And he strode off to the bridge, erect, calm and determined-looking. He showed no sign of concern at the 'muck' that was flying round him. His tin hat dangled from his wrist and he twirled it around as he walked.

Most of the men got across this time. Merritt himself before that day was through was to cross that bridge no



* "Rehearsal for Invasion," by Wallace Reyburn (Harrap & Co., London).

CHURCHILL TANKS ASHORE AT DIEPPE

Arriving in special landing craft, Churchill tanks of the 14th Canadian Army Tank battalion under Maj. J. Begg, of Calgary (right), aided by men of the Royal Canadian Engineers, were manoeuvred ashore in the frontal attack on the town itself, some of them scaling the 8-to ft. sea wall and entering the streets. Here, disabled Churchills and a landing craft are seen on the deserted shore after the 'reconnaissance in force' had been completed.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press



fewer than six times. He led other men across, saying as he set off, 'Come on over—there's nothing to it.'"

Colonel Merritt did not return with the South Saskatchewans, although by a miracle he survived the rain of fire to which he so casually exposed himself. He was on the beach as the last of his men left in the subsequent withdrawal, but then, taking some spare tommy-guns and rifles, went back towards Pourville saying, "I'm going to get even with these swine for what they have done to my regiment." He was subsequently reported to be a prisoner-of-war.

The Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders of Canada used the bridgehead established by the South Saskatchewan's to follow up. They came in in broad daylight and made rapid progress although their Commanding Officer, Lieut.-Colonel A. C. Gostling, was killed as he stepped ashore. Before the time for withdrawal arrived they had pushed two miles inland, inflicting heavy casualties on the Germans as they went.





SINGLE-HANDED MASTERPIECE OF DEMOLITION AT THE DIEPPE CASINO

Site of a 6-in. naval gun which commanded the beach, the heavily fortified Casino was listed for destruction by the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry, assisted by the Royal Canadian Engineers. One of the latter, Lance-Sgt. George A. Hickson (left) was awarded the D.C.M. for his magnificent personal contribution to the achievement shown above. Hickson subsequently received the M.M. for services in North Africa. *Photos, British Official; G.P.U.*

The frontal attack on the town of Dieppe itself was preceded by a short, sharp bombardment by naval vessels and a low level attack by cannon-firing Spitfires and Hurricanes. Then the Essex Scottish on the left and the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry on the right went in to the assault together. Despite the intense bombardment, the Canadians came under heavy fire from concealed emplacements in the two headlands east and west of the beaches. The Casino, which had been turned into a powerful strongpoint by the Germans, was stormed by the Royal Hamiltons, magnificently assisted by the Royal Canadian Engineers, led by Lieut. W. A. Ewener. One of his men, Lance-Sergeant George A. Hickson, carried out the most daring piece of demolition work on the whole Dieppe front.

Storming of the Casino

Unable to obey his orders to destroy the main telephone exchange in the Post Office because of intense enemy fire, and left in charge of his platoon through the commander and most of the senior N.C.O.s being out of action, Hickson led the platoon to the Casino. There he blasted his way with explosives through the walls and blew in the steel door of a concrete gun emplacement, killing the gun-crew of five. After the R.H.L.I.s had cleared the post he completed his demolition work by blowing up the six-inch naval gun which commanded the beach and the main Dieppe approach and put a couple of machine-guns out of action. Lance-Sergeant Hickson was subsequently awarded the D.C.M.

Then the first wave of Churchill tanks of the 14th Canadian Army Tank battalion arrived in the special tank-landing craft. Royal Canadian Engineers worked with desperate courage to make a way for the tanks over the sea wall, which varied in height from 8 to 10 ft., and some did surmount it and get on to the Boulevard Maréchal Foch.

These went to attack the defences on the western headland, a few only turning into the town. When they found themselves shut in by very heavy tank blocks, one of the Churchills smashed clean through a house, only to run into fresh anti-tank guns.

About this time the Fusiliers Mont Royal, the floating reserve, were sent in to reinforce the Essex Scottish, but fared no better against the concentrated fire the Germans could still bring to bear on the beaches, the eastern headland still remaining unsubdued. Major-General Roberts then decided to send in the Royal Marine Commando.

Few of the Marines actually got ashore, because as soon as they cleared a smoke screen which had been put down to cover their approach, they came under a tremendous concentration of fire. Lieut.-Col. J. P. Phillips, realizing that it was useless for them to go on, put on a pair of white gloves and waved to the boats to turn back. He saved the lives of many men but himself fell mortally wounded.

Meanwhile, units on shore continued to fight on, inflicting heavy casualties on the Germans, until the withdrawal signal was given. The difficulties then faced are well expressed in an official Canadian report on Dieppe. "Withdrawal following a raid of this sort (it states) is always a most difficult and dangerous operation; and in this instance it was especially so as the enemy had succeeded in bringing into action a number of mobile batteries, mortars and additional infantry. Although this enabled him to organize very heavy fire on both the beaches and sea approaches, and the ships and craft lying off Dieppe, in spite of excellent fighter cover, were suffering sporadic attacks by dive-bombers, the Navy most gallantly went into the beaches again and again to take off the troops. Officers and other ranks of the military force ashore performed many acts of gallantry in carrying wounded men to the landing craft. During this phase destroyers closed the beaches almost to the point of grounding in order to support the re-embarkation by fire, and to pick up survivors."

Difficulties of the Withdrawal

Tribute should here be paid to the heroic work of the doctors and medical orderlies who accompanied the Dieppe forces. They went right in with the fighting battalions and undoubtedly saved many lives by the prompt attention they were able to give while



HOME AGAIN AFTER THE 'RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE'

Tired, begrimed, but grimly satisfied with their achievement, some of the 5,000 Dieppe raiders relax on the quayside of a British port after the Royal Navy had conveyed them safely home. They had emerged unscathed from the hell vividly depicted in p. 2402, having wrought havoc on the enemy on his own ground and brought back invaluable information concerning his strength where it was regarded as at its greatest on the Channel coast.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

under fire. It was disclosed subsequently that of 600 Canadians admitted to hospital on return to England, the mortality was only 2.5 per cent. Sulphonamides—the new drug series—were extensively used in treating the wounded on the way home and in hospital later, and results were excellent.

Throughout the day the Royal Navy assisted the land operations by heavy bombardment of enemy shore positions and successfully covered the landings and embarkations. Despite formidable artillery and air opposition British naval losses, apart from a fairly large number of landing craft (of which the enemy claimed 300–400 were used), consisted only of the Hunt class destroyer "Berkeley" (904 tons), which was so badly damaged that it had to be sunk by British forces, the majority of the crew being saved.

Light Naval Losses

There remains the air battle which raged over Dieppe practically throughout the land operations. The Germans, alarmed at the strength of the blow aimed at them, rushed in reserves of aircraft exactly as the R.A.F. had hoped. As a result there developed one of the greatest air conflicts of the war. Our aircraft were sent on more than 2,000 sorties. Apart from innumerable dogfights with the enemy, the planes of practically all the Allies shot up ground positions, bombed near-by aerodromes, put down smoke screens and covered both the attack and withdrawal. At the end of the day we had lost 98 planes—though 30 fighter pilots were saved—but 170 of the enemy had been destroyed. (See Chapter 254.) The costly results of this air action were sufficient to cause the Luftwaffe to make large-scale alterations in their air dispositions immediately after our reconnaissance in force. The Prime Minister referred to it as "an extremely satisfactory air battle which Fighter Command wish they could repeat every week."

The far-reaching benefits that accrued to the cause of the United Nations as a result of the outstanding bravery of the men who went to Dieppe have already been indicated, and the 170 Canadians who, out of a force of 5,000, gave their lives did not die in vain. They and their comrades, 3,350 of whom became casualties in one form or another, rendered a lasting service to the Allied cause. Even the Germans were forced to join in the world-wide praise of their gallantry. The enemy-controlled Paris radio said, "The first thing that emerges from the fighting is the stubbornness of these soldiers. One has the impression that these men clung to the soil and fought to the last cartridge and that they were endowed with magnificent courage."



'BEACHCOMBER' CARRIED THE FIRST DISPATCH

This pigeon was one of two entrusted with bringing the first reports of the action from the land to the H.Q. ship. 'Beachcomber's' companion was killed in flight. Pigeon-borne messages were necessary in view of the dangers involved in the use of wireless.

Photo, Central Press

THE HISTORIC SIEGE OF STALINGRAD

From August 1942 to January 1943 took place some of the bloodiest fighting of the war, with Stalingrad as the disputed prize. The siege of the Steel City, the unshakable determination of its defenders and its ultimate relief were the turning point in the Russian Campaign. The first four months of the battle are here surveyed by our Military Editor. The reader is advised to consult the maps in pp. 2425 and 2267 while following the narrative

As recounted in Chapter 227, the Germans, by the end of July 1942, had reached the Don throughout its length from Voronezh to the Sea of Azov, except in the angle at the elbow of the river, where the Russians held the right bank between Kletskaya and Kalach, covering the approaches to Stalingrad. Farther down-stream the Russians had rallied on the river at Tsimlyansk to dispute the passage and to cover the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway. Lower down still, from the junction of the Don and Donetz to the Sea of Azov, the river had been crossed on a wide front. Timoshenko's armies, though heavily defeated, were far from annihilated and had plenty of fight left in them. Between the Don and Donetz their retreat had been so rapid that, hotly as the Germans pursued, they were unable to inflict much further damage. The open nature of the country had given opportunities for the exploitation of the elusiveness of a mechanized army, and for dispersion to minimize the effects of air attack. On the lower Don front the situation was, however, very critical. If the Germans at Tsimlyansk reached the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway Timoshenko's left wing would, to a large extent, be cut off from the main Russian armies and from its chief sources of munition supply. Failure to hold the line of the lower Don was ominous. For the first time something approaching a collapse of morale had occurred, and Stalin had issued a grim order to combat any tendency to weakness; but even here, there was a remarkable recovery.

So far the German offensive had been conducted as a great, almost continuous, sweep clearing the whole area west of the Don; but henceforth it was to develop as two separate sets of operations, directed respectively towards the Lower Volga, with Stalingrad as the key objective, and towards the oilfields and Black Sea ports of Caucasia (see Chapter 245). Though the operations were synchronous there was so little connexion between them that they are best described separately.

Two Main German Thrusts

It seems probable that the Volga operations, though important, were originally intended to be subsidiary to the main drive into Caucasia. Their primary object was to secure the control of the waterway and thus interrupt the route by which central and northern Russia drew supplies of Caucasian oil and food from southern granaries. After the distributing centre of Rostov had been captured there was practically no alternative route of great capacity. Stalingrad, as the most accessible point on the Volga, was indicated as the immediate objective, and there were other reasons that made its capture important.

Stalingrad (formerly Tsaritsyn) during the 20 years before Hitler's invasion had become the third largest industrial city of the U.S.S.R., with a population in 1939 of 445,476. It was the first of the great towns which sprang up almost overnight under the first Five Year Plan (1927). Its planning, with broad, tree-lined streets, workers' flats, community centres, etc., became the model from which other new cities derived inspiration. Under the Soviet economic scheme Stalingrad was scheduled to be a producer of tractors, agricultural machines, lorries and motor cars. In 1935 it turned out 38,000 tractors, and the output for 1939 was 60,000. Doubtless behind and within this scheme was provision for a switch to tanks, armoured vehicles and weapons. During the fighting the Red Barricade gun factory and the Red October munitions factory became notable; from the Dzerjinsky tractor plant fighting vehicles were driven straight to the battle front outside Stalingrad. Besides these enterprises there were oil refineries, saw-mills and the usual industries of a large town and port (see plan, p. 2418).

Importance of Stalingrad

Under construction was the Don–Volga Canal, below Stalingrad, which was to connect the Volga area with the Black Sea and thus with the Mediterranean. It also provided for the harnessing of the Volga to electric power stations and for the irrigation of arid



HONOURED DEFENDERS OF STALINGRAD

Inside the besieged city of Stalingrad was the 62nd Army, commanded by Lt.-Gen. V. I. Chuykov (above). This group was part of the Stalingrad area forces under Col.-General A. I. Yeremenko (inset). With their backs to the river Volga, Chuykov's men contested the city street by street, block by block, though surrounded on three sides and constantly subjected to shell-fire from the heights and bombing from the air. Both Chuykov and Yeremenko received the Order of Suvarov, First Class, highest Soviet award for military valour.

Photos, Pictorial Press

districts along the great river. So much for the economic importance of the city which was now the chief German objective in the south. But it had also for all Russians another significance—as the "Red Verdun," where under Stalin's leadership the Red armies defeated the White Russians of Denikin in 1918.

Stalin had gone to the region as Commissar of Supplies with the task of organizing the flow of grain and other commodities needed by the Russian capital and the Red armies in the north. But before he could even begin he had to reorganize the defence of Tsaritsyn against Denikin's troops. With the consent of Lenin he took over the military command; Timoshenko aided him, and they were joined a little later by Voroshilov with other Soviet troops. Thus reinforced, the defenders struck back at Denikin and freed the city. The much-needed cargoes of grain were sent along the Volga, and Stalin found other arduous military tasks awaiting him, in which he showed outstanding skill and boldness, combined with that strategic ability for which even then, a generation ago, he had became famous. By his later success against Yudenitch, who was then driving on towards Petrograd, Stalin ended the White menace to the security of the Soviet regime.

In German hands the city would serve as a hedgehog defensive pivot and provide winter shelter for a large garrison. Served by two main railways from the Donets Basin, one on each side of the Don, it could be easily supplied. The Don from Voronezh to Kletskaya formed a strong defensive line against any encircling counter-offensive the Russians might attempt and, with a pivot at Stalingrad, it gave flank defence to the thrust into Caucasia. The capture of the city, once the Don had been crossed at its elbow, probably appeared to the Germans to present no great difficulties. There were no permanent fortifications and, extending in a narrow belt for some 30 miles, it formed a target lacking depth in defence. With the Volga behind it, exposed to air attack, the difficulty of supplying the city would be great, and the Steppes provided innumerable natural airfields for the Luftwaffe.

The task of forcing a crossing in the Don elbow and capturing Stalingrad appears in the first instance to have been assigned to the German left wing, which had swept down the right bank of the Don until it encountered Russian resistance at Kletskaya. The force which was attempting to cross the Don at Tsimlyansk may not originally have been intended to take part in the attack on Stalingrad; its objective, after reaching the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway, may have been Astrakhan and the Volga Delta. If these were the German plans and expectations they soon required considerable modification, and increasingly went awry. The resistance encountered at Kletskaya, where fighting began about July 29, proved very stubborn, and counter-attacks for some time prevented the Germans from reaching the Don within the elbow.

German Plans Went Awry

The German force available for attack was probably limited in size, owing to difficulty of supply by its long lines of communication. Failure to interrupt the railways between the Don and Volga east of Voronezh probably also enabled the Russians to send reinforcements for defence of the Stalingrad region. Not until August 11 did the Germans reach Kalach on the south side of the elbow. This was, however, an important step, for it completed the capture of the Stalingrad-Rostov railway as far as the Don, thus enabling reinforcements and supplies to reach the attacking force by a shorter route. Nevertheless, fighting within the elbow continued, and it was August 24 before the Germans obtained a footing across



ALL THE YEAR ROUND THE CAMEL SERVED

Both sides employed camels in the Battle of Stalingrad; these animals came originally from the Kirgiz Steppe, the desert region lying to the east of the Volga. In the depths of winter (above) the Russians used camel-drawn sleds such as this to deliver barrels of water to dug-outs and field hospitals; while in what one Nazi commentator called 'the hardships of the sun-burned steppe' in late summer, the Germans (below) found the camel 'a faithful companion.'

Photos, Pictorial Press; Munich Illustrierte Presse



the river S.E. of Kletskaya. Almost a month had thus passed in achieving this first essential step, and its success was mainly due to a concentrated air attack of great weight.

Meanwhile, on the Tsimlyansk front German success was more rapid, though some days elapsed before a bridgehead of sufficient size to permit the deployment of a large force was established. The fight for the crossing had begun about July 22, and it was August 4 before the Germans reached Kotelnikov on the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway. This was an important success which not only cut railway communications between Stalingrad and the army in the western Caucasus, but gave the Germans a good line of communication between Rostov and Kotelnikov. The Russians, retreating eastwards, evacuated Kotelnikov, but resistance east of the town stiffened and for a considerable period heavy fighting without much progress was reported. On August 12 the capture of Elista, the capital of the Kalmuck district, was reported, which appeared to indicate a wide turning movement on the right. Little, however, was heard subsequently of the force that occupied the place until its retreat in the winter. It is still uncertain whether it was intended as an initial step in an advance towards Astrakhan, or merely a move to occupy a rich agricultural district and to cover the flank of a drive N.E. towards Stalingrad from guerilla activities.

With the attack towards Stalingrad from the Don elbow hanging fire the probability increased that a co-operative attack N.E. from the Kotelnikov direction would develop. Nevertheless, when the army in the elbow had effected a crossing the advance towards the city proceeded without waiting for the Kotelnikov force to gain ground. Very fierce fighting resulted, but progress was slow, the Russians constantly counter-attacking with considerable success.

Threats from N.W. and S.W.

The main attack was at first made in a north-easterly direction, presumably with the object of cutting the railway communication with the north, and of reaching the Volga. But, meeting stubborn resistance, the fighting for a considerable time developed in the area N.W. of the city; and it was evident that the attack had lost its momentum in spite of the fact that some 25 infantry and seven armoured divisions, with about 1,000 aircraft co-operating, were by now engaged.

Meantime, the Kotelnikov force made slow progress, though no doubt it was now directed towards Stalingrad. The force may not at first have been very strong, for the operations in the western Caucasus presumably made conflicting demands on its line of communication through Rostov. By the beginning of September it had, however, been reinforced, especially in armour, and it had made sufficient ground to make it clear that Stalingrad was closely threatened from north-west and south-west, a break-through by tanks having carried the latter drive a considerable distance forward.

In the first week of the month the attack intensified, with the chief danger threatening from the south-west and spreading to the west of the city. Russian resistance was fierce and the Germans were compelled to vary their methods of attack, sometimes attacking on a wide front, at others concentrating on a narrow sector in attempts to drive a wedge into the defences. Great use was made of air bombardment, concentrated on small areas in the hopes of crushing and stunning the defence. Buildings in these areas were often completely obliterated before infantry and tank attacks covered by artillery barrage were launched. Ground was gained, but often lost again to Russian counter-attacks. In the confused



STALINGRAD'S OWN TANKS HELPED TO REPEL THE INVADER

On the eve of the outbreak of war, Stalingrad's great industrial equipment included a factory which produced 40,000 caterpillar tractors a year. As in Kharkov, this factory went over to tank production in the interests of national security. When the German assault began, even uncompleted tanks were turned to use; they made effective bunkers, or static strongpoints (above). The finished machines—one is shown below going into action—played a mighty part in the defence of the city.

Photos, Associated Press; Pictorial Press





STALINGRAD WAS A BATTLE OF STREETS AND BUILDINGS

An epic feature of the Stalingrad fighting was the grim refusal of its defenders to yield more than a step at a time. Streets were contested yard by yard; buildings room by room. So short-ranged and bitter was the fighting that even a crater in a roadway (left) was a sanctuary for the enemy to give thanks for. Right, a Red Army guardsman snipes from the window of a factory, one of the many in the Steel City which were converted into fortresses.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Keystone

fighting there was little information to show how much progress the attack was making, but by the middle of September it had certainly reached the outskirts of the city. That progress had been disappointing to the Germans was evident; and when, in the third week of the month, fighting slowed down, their spokesmen began to complain of inadequate communications for the maintenance of supplies, and of the added difficulties caused by rain. Those difficulties were probably considerable, and were likely to increase with the approach of winter. Moreover, landing grounds on the Steppes, excellent in dry weather, soon became unusable in wet. That affected not only air support of attacks but also supply services, for the Germans were using transport planes to supplement land communications.

Towards the end of the month, though heavy fighting continued, rumours of friction between Hitler, his military advisers and commanders on the spot began to circulate. This was not surprising, for evidently the capture of Stalingrad was taking much longer and was requiring immensely greater effort than had been sanguinely expected. Diversion of effort to the Stalingrad front had probably affected the Caucasus front, where progress was becoming disappointing. Hitler's prestige was also involved, for there had been confident predictions of the early fall of Stalingrad. The attention of the world was riveted on the struggle, admiration for the magnificent Russian resistance grew, and hope revived.

Friction in German Command

Could Stalingrad after all emulate the achievement of Moscow in the previous year and hold out until winter? If it could the Germans would be exposed without adequate shelter to the bitter winds of the Steppes, and with their armies compelled to hold a great bulge which lengthened their front immensely. The strategic weakness this would entail was all the more evident because the greater part of the Russian Army had not been seriously engaged during the summer, except where they themselves had taken the offensive on the Rzhev front. Although through traffic on the Volga had undoubtedly been interrupted, it was clear that the Red Army had sufficient reserves of oil and material to retain offensive power.

There were definite indications that a situation dangerous for the Germans might develop if Stalingrad held out. The Russian bridgehead at Kletskaya was still maintained and the Germans had to provide a considerable defensive detachment to prevent it forming a base for counter-attack. Towards the end of September a further threat began to develop which entailed even a greater dispersion of force in a purely defensive role. A Russian force began to make its presence felt between the Don and the Volga, and it initiated local attacks on the defence positions which the Germans had entrenched for the protection of the northern flank of their attacking army. The Russian attacks were easily held, but they tended to grow in weight and necessitate a further diversion of force to defence. The strategic implications of these threats seem, however, to have been ignored by the Germans, who evidently relied on their flank defences, strengthened as they were with concrete pill-boxes and damaged tanks, dug in to form anti-tank and machine-gun posts.

On September 30 Hitler proclaimed his determination that Stalingrad would be taken, and his speech was followed by an intensification of the attack in the first week of October. This time it was directed against the workers' settlement and great industrial establishments in the north-western extension of the city, while at the same time ferocious street fighting continued in localized attacks and counter-attacks along its whole length. This street fighting was unlike any that had been known in earlier wars, for dive-bombers, tanks, light and heavy field artillery and machine-guns, mortars, grenades, and the automatic heavy-calibre small-arms of the infantry combined to produce entirely new conditions. Here is a description of the barricade fighting given by a battalion-commissar of the Red Army:

Stalingrad Mans the Barricades

"Particularly fierce battles are now raging at the street crossings, where the fate of blocks of buildings is decided. The Nazis open each of their attacks by concentrating their dive-bombers, trench-mortars and artillery on a small sector of a few hundred yards square. When the area has been





FIERY ORDEAL OF THE STEEL CITY

Stalingrad (then Tsaritsyn) suffered in the Civil War and the famine of 1921. But in 20 years it had been so restored as to contain 445,476 people and rank as the most important industrial town on the Volga. Its factories produced quality steel, tractors and other agricultural machinery, cotton, chemicals, armaments and foodstuffs. It possessed two gigantic power plants and an oil refinery. None went unscathed in the winter of 1942; many were destroyed. Above, air view of a factory on the banks of the Volga, ablaze after bombing. Left, shells rain on another industrial plant. Below, part of the stifling smoke pall which for months overhung the city, seen from the east bank of the Volga.

Photos, "The Times,"; "New York Times" Photos; British Newsreels



streets. They captured the first floor of a stone-built house at an important crossing but the Red Army men outflanked them by climbing to the second and third floors. The Russians barricaded all the approaches to those floors, placed two machine-guns on the very top of the house so that they could spray the street below with fire, and cut off a group of German sub-machine gunners who had forged ahead. These gunners tried to find a way out along streets running parallel, but were wiped out by counter-attacking Soviet sub-divisions."

The object of the main German attacks was to capture the solidly built factories which formed strong defensive centres and to thrust through to the Volga.

Vital Role of the Artillery

If that were achieved artillery fire would make it impossible to reinforce or supply the city from the east bank, and its defences could be taken in flank and rolled up. The attack was delivered with great violence and a footing was gained in some of the factories, but the Russians constantly counter-attacked and progress was very slow. Hampered by mud and rain, it was in a few days brought practically to a standstill.

A Soviet general stated that the artillery formed the backbone of the Stalingrad defence. Guns of all kinds and calibres, including heavy long-range artillery and ordnance carried by the Volga Naval Flotilla (see illus., p. 2386), were used in street fighting. In a month one Guards artillery regiment destroyed or damaged 80 German tanks. The narrative goes on:

"In the street fighting the Soviet artilleryman nearly always fires over open sights. I saw one battle in which four of our 152-millimetre guns routed 12 German tanks that had broken through to the battery. When the enemy approached within 300-400 yards the gun barrels were lowered until they were parallel with the ground. The first salvo tore the leading tank to pieces. The second machine was blown up soon afterwards, and the others retreated."

Here is another account, telling what happened when Nazis and Red Army men seized opposite sides of the same building, and the dividing corridor formed the "front line":

"The two garrisons—ours and the German—were divided by two walls and a narrow corridor. Neither side allowed reinforcements to come up for the other. Artillery and mortars, both Soviet and German, ceased firing on the building from outside, fearing to harm their own men. An uneasy day passed, the two groups exchanging short bursts from automatic rifles and tossing a grenade from time to time. At night the Germans tried to get aid through to their garrison, but the Soviet Guardsmen were too vigilant for them. The second day came. Fighting was going on in the neighbouring sector, there was an incessant roar of explosions through the town, but the four-storeyed house lived remote, detached from the rest of the world."



UNCONQUERABLE STALINGRAD AND ITS ENVIRONS

Stalingrad lies between the Volga to the east, at a point some 230 miles up the river from Astrakhan, and a high ridge of hills known as the Mamaev Kurgan, commanding a view of the whole city and well within 76-mm. gun range of the factory area and the river crossings. The Germans captured this ridge early in September 1942, and from then until the middle of January 1943 the bombardment was unremitting. The racket-shaped marshalling yard (top centre) is shown undergoing attack from the air in p. 2438.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

sufficiently pulverized, small groups of their sub-machine gunners creep forward under cover of the ruins and attempt to establish themselves. Every stone building that has survived the fires and incessant bombardment is used as a fortress by either the attackers or defenders. Both sides install light mortars and small guns.

"Battles lasted for days. In one sector the Germans lost several thousand soldiers and officers killed, 42 tanks, four artillery batteries and nine trench-mortar batteries. At last, after the Luftwaffe had pounded every building to rubble they managed to make some headway. Supported by tanks and mortars they began to deploy along the

Just about dawn of the third day, when the Soviet ammunition was becoming exhausted, some of the Red Army men decided to bring matters to a head. They took two grenades each and made their way into the corridor, where they found that one door on the enemy's side was not barricaded. Snoring could be heard. Cautiously one put his weight to the door, and it opened without creaking. By the light from distant fires outside he saw another door to the right and alongside it a Nazi guard sleeping on his haunches; several Nazis lay round the walls, while at the window a dark silhouette showed of a German who seemed to be dozing. The sleeping guard was knocked out with a blow from an automatic. Well-aimed grenades disposed of the rest of the party, and the building was in Soviet hands.



THE PEOPLE FOUND SANCTUARY IN CAVES

These women and children of Stalingrad are seen emerging from caves cut into the 'balkas,' or gorges, which run through the plateau on which the city stands. Similar refuges from air attack were built in the cliff-like banks of the Volga. In such holes in the earth thousands of ordinary civilians endured a winter of extreme cold, with almost incessant bombardment from Nazi long-range guns and bombers. *Photo, Associated Press*

This was not the end, for the Germans outside rushed to help their garrison. Nazi tanks approaching the building were blown up by Soviet mines; dive-bombers now attacked the house, and artillery and mortars opened up. Then there was a further assault by 15 tanks and an infantry formation. It was repulsed. Twice more that day the enemy tried to recapture the building, the two top floors of which had by now been quite destroyed; but the Soviet offensive now thundering at the approaches to Stalingrad, as the narrator says, "gave them something else to think about."

German Offensive Renewed

On October 14, after a drier spell, the German offensive was renewed, but with much the same result, although heavy concentrations of tanks and aircraft were used. In the fourth week of the month the situation again became extremely critical, and the Germans claimed to have gained a foothold on the river bank. Moscow was thoroughly alarmed, but if the claim were true the foothold must have been very narrow, and a magnificently executed counter-attack prevented it from being extended or supported. About this time it became clear that the garrison was still receiving substantial reinforcements, in spite of the attempts of the Luftwaffe and artillery to destroy the light bridges and river craft engaged in ferry services. Even the railway on the east bank, though attacked, continued to function.

The weather was by now beginning to play an increasingly important part in the struggle. The Germans complained bitterly of the difficulties of maintaining the flow of supplies, and their troops, although much better clothed than in the previous winter, were suffering from the cold. Although temperatures were not so low as those experienced on the Moscow front the year before, the bitter and penetrating winds of the Steppes were almost unbearable. On the other hand, the Russians were faced with the danger of being cut off from reinforcements or supplies during the period before the river froze solid, and when floating ice would make ferry service impracticable.

Hitler Confesses Failure

Early in November Hitler appears to have been at last convinced that Stalingrad could not be taken by assault, for he announced that his main objective had been achieved and that he would not sacrifice more lives in attacks, but eliminate the remaining elements of resistance by bombardment. Nevertheless fighting, though on a reduced scale, continued; probably brought about either by German attempts to capture more favourable points in which to establish themselves, or by Russian counter-attacks on German advanced posts. On the whole, however, it



ACROSS THE VOLGA SUPPLIES WERE SHIPPED

Besieged on all sides to the west, Stalingrad could look only to the east, across the Volga, for the supplies indispensable to her survival. Not only were food, war material and reinforcements thus brought to the city; from it the wounded were ferried to safety on the east bank under cover of darkness. Day and night, monitors (cannon-boats) of the Volga flotilla raced up and down the river, shelling the German mortar positions. *Photo, Paramount*

appeared that Hitler's announcement might be taken at its face value, and that Stalingrad was no longer in danger of immediate capture; Hitler's boasts that its remaining garrison would be crushed or forced to surrender by air and artillery bombardment without the necessity of further assaults being taken generally as a face-saving statement.

Meanwhile the relief force north of the city had been showing increasing strength and activity during the latter half of October, and, although no major attempt to break through had been made, at least two quite important successes had been achieved. Stalin and Zhukov had, however, kept their secrets well, and neither the Germans nor the world in general had any inkling of the storm that was brewing. Not until November 22 was it known that the storm had burst and that it was von Paulus' 6th Army and no longer Stalingrad that stood in mortal danger. The story of the brilliant and masterly operations which liberated Stalingrad and turned the tables on the enemy is told in Chapter 252.



FACTORY 'FORTRESS'

The Russians converted every factory into a strongpoint; every window on every floor became a vantage point for a mortar, a machine-gun, an automatic rifle. Long and savage struggles, lasting days, yielded the enemy only a few yards of ruins and twisted steel work. Below, German grenadiers in an abandoned power plant take cover as they await a counter-attack.

Photo, U.P.I.



Field-Marshal von Bock launched the offensive against Stalingrad, but on September 26 it was revealed that he had been replaced by General von Hoth, who in turn was succeeded by Field-Marshal von Paulus. On the southern front von Manstein was similarly replaced by Field-Marshal List, the former having failed to repeat his Crimean triumphs in the approach to the Caucasus. Still it was to General von Manstein (with von Hoth's Armoured Corps as his striking force) that was later entrusted the attempted breakthrough at Kotelnikovo to relieve encircled Field-Marshal von Paulus; and when the Russian winter drive got under way (see Chapter 252) it was von Manstein who was called upon to stem it with an improvised army.

German and Russian Commanders

Official credit for executing Stalin's plan for the relief of Stalingrad has been conferred on Marshal Zhukov, acting as representative of the H.Q. of the Supreme Command. Marshal Timoshenko, originally controlling the whole southern sector of the front, was transferred to the north early in the operations. The Don Army was led by Col.-Gen. K. K. Rokossovsky. In the city itself was the 62nd Army, under Lt.-Gen. V. I. Chuykov, part of Col.-Gen. A. I. Yeremenko's Stalingrad area forces. In the critical days of September he was joined by Maj.-Gen. Alexander Rodimtsev's 13th Guards Division. The eventual encirclement of von Paulus was carried out by north and south pincers, commanded respectively by



STREET FIGHTING DECIDED STALINGRAD'S FATE

Despite intensive shelling and bombing the Germans could not force the surrender of Stalingrad. They had to realize at last that it would have to be taken yard by yard. Never before in the war had street fighting and hand-to-hand combat been so dominating a feature of a battle. Above, Red Army men, with rifles and sub-machine guns at the ready, launch a counter-attack along a factory railway track. *Photo, Pictorial Press*

Gen. Rokossovsky and Col.-Gen. Vatutin. The artillery dispositions were planned by Col.-General of Artillery Voronov, representing the H.Q. of the Supreme Command of the Red Army.

To what factors must be attributed the amazing, almost miraculous, defence of Stalingrad, a city so little adapted to stand a siege, against an attack of unprecedented weight, continuity and ferocity? Clearly the indomitable, the almost fanatical, courage of the garrison and of the civil population was the chief factor. The longer the siege went on the more did Stalingrad become the symbol of Russia's spirit of resistance, and the intense interest with which the struggle was watched by the whole world had its psychological effect, stiffening determination. The iron will of Stalin, which demanded the highest sacrifices, reinforced by the story of the former defence of the city under his leadership against Denikin's army, exercised an immense influence.

Strategically the successful defence of Voronezh had been a factor of vital importance. It had kept the way open for reinforcements sufficient to enable the crossing of the Don by the Germans and their approach to the city to be disputed over a period long enough to check the impetus of the first attacks. Tactically the conformation of the Volga banks was the main contributing factor in the successful defence. In the steep bank of the river, and in the ravines leading to it, secure shelter could be found for reserves and munitions. The factories provided many strong points for defence, and in the ferocious hand-to-hand and house-to-house street fighting the combatants became so interlocked that the Germans could not support their infantry closely with artillery or bombing. This probably was the reason why the Russians were able to conduct such an admirably active defence, with constant counter-attacks by small groups. Yet the progress of the attack, though made desperately costly and slow, could not altogether be stopped, and by the end of the siege only a narrow strip of the city, less than half a mile wide, was still held. It was then that the shelter of the river banks compensated for lack of depth in the defence. Guns on the east bank of the river, and in the river gunboats, contributed to the defence.



STALINGRAD MEDAL

Specially struck for the valiant defenders of Stalingrad was this medal. On its face are the words, 'For the Defence of Stalingrad'; on the reverse, 'For Our Soviet Land.' Civil Defence workers, guerillas and ordinary people whose conduct had been meritorious were eligible equally with the Armed Forces for the award. *Photo, U.S.S.R. Official*

To a less determined and far-sighted leader than Stalin the temptation to evacuate the city and to seek refuge behind the Volga would have been great. It would have been possible to do so up to a late stage in the struggle; but that would not have suited Stalin's plans for his winter campaign, and, moreover, it would have enabled the Germans, having achieved their special object, to concentrate their efforts on the Caucasus operations. The great strategical result of the Stalingrad defence was that it forced the Germans to disperse their strength. It was not that they failed at Stalingrad from lack of numbers or material resources, but that the diversion of strength to Stalingrad affected crucially what had been intended as their main effort. The defence of the city thus not only completely upset the German offensive plans, but exposed their armies to catastrophic defeat in detail and widespread disaster.

Results of the Battle

Seldom, perhaps never, in history has the heroic defence of a fiercely besieged city achieved results of such far-reaching strategic consequences.

GERMAN DRIVE FOR CAUCASUS OILFIELDS: JULY—NOVEMBER, 1942

With the fall of Rostov on July 27, 1942 (see Chapter 227), it appeared to the German High Command that the way lay open for an irresistible double thrust at Stalingrad and the Caucasus. How the Stalingrad assault was repelled is narrated in Chapter 244, while here our Military Editor describes the ultimate collapse of the concurrent offensive in the Caucasus

By the end of July 1942 the Germans had recaptured Rostov and had crossed the Lower Don on a wide front. Before following further developments in this theatre it may be well to examine why the Russians failed to make a stand on such a formidable obstacle. For this it is necessary to recall the situation in the Donbas during the spring lull. Briefly, the Germans were established in the centre of the basin and were assembling for an offensive. The Russians held the eastern portion. When Timoshenko in May launched his forestalling offensive on the Kharkov front, the Germans were compelled to draw on the troops they had assembled in order to stage the counter-attack at Izyum; and, whatever their intentions were, they postponed their attack in the Donbas until after their offensive on the upper Donetz and Kursk fronts had broken through and swung south between the Don and Donetz. This may have been due both to the disturbance of their dispositions by Timoshenko's offensive and the fact that a large force was still engaged in the siege of Sevastopol. The situation of the Russians west of the Lower Donetz had become perilous. Their right flank was turned and their line of retreat to the east was cut. In these circumstances, when the attack against them from the west developed, there was no alternative but to retreat fighting southwards on Rostov.

On July 17 Soviet forces evacuated Voroshilovgrad, and from the 20th to the 27th there was bitter fighting on the right bank of the Lower Don about Novocherkassk and Rostov—probably rearguard actions to cover withdrawal across the river. The retreat before an enemy attacking from the west and reinforced with armour and aircraft released by the fall of Sevastopol must have been difficult and costly. It may readily be believed that there was confusion and some demoralization in getting across the river, and little time to organize defences on its farther side. Rostov itself was evacuated on July 27, but two days earlier the Germans had claimed to have crossed the Don south and east of that city. In the neighbourhood of Bataisk, opposite Rostov, the Russians fought hard, but farther to the east the Germans seem to have met less opposition, and on July 28 claimed to have crossed the Manych and Sal, tributaries of the Don on the left bank. By the end of the month the Germans therefore had not only crossed the Lower Don, but on their left they had reached Proletarskaya, where the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway crossed the Manych, and opposite Rostov Bataisk had been captured. Timoshenko at this stage appears to have decided to retreat rapidly to the Caucasus foothills and marshy regions of the Azov coast, where German armoured thrusts from Proletarskaya and Bataisk would have a less favourable terrain. (See map, p. 2267.)

The Caucasian section of the German offensive was thus well launched. The immediate military objects to be attained were: first, to complete the defeat of that portion of Timoshenko's army which, with its communication with Moscow and Stalingrad cut, was almost completely isolated in Caucasia; secondly, to capture the Black Sea ports of Novorossisk and Tuapse—important because this would deprive the Black Sea Fleet of two valuable bases, leaving it wholly dependent on the indifferent harbour of Batum; third, and perhaps most important, to advance along the Rostov–Baku railway and, if possible, to capture the oilfield of Baku, thereby depriving the Soviet armies and industries of their main source of oil supply. An advance even so far as the Caspian coast would be an important military achievement, for it would entail the capture of the Grozny oilfields on the northern side of the Caucasus mountains, and enable tanker traffic from Baku to Astrakhan and the mouth of the Ural river to be brought under air attack.

Objects of the Campaign



PANZERS GO IN TO THE ATTACK

Along a once-quiet, green valley in the Caucasus a formidable formation of enemy tanks rolls forward to the assault on the Russian positions. Their objective was threefold: to annihilate the Soviet forces cut off in the Caucasus; to capture Novorossisk and Tuapse; and to advance along the Rostov–Baku railway and seize the great Caspian oilfield. Except for the Kuban, Kuma and Terek river crossings the terrain favoured mechanized warfare.

Photo, Associated Press

Apart from these negative military objectives reducing Russia's war potential there were prizes of value to the Germans themselves. The Maikop oil field in the north-western foothills of the Caucasus, with its pipe-line to Rostov and its refining plant at Krasnodar, would be of immense value if captured intact. It would provide fuel for the needs of a great part of the German armies in Russia and also for tractors required for the agricultural development of occupied territory. The northern foothills of the Caucasus with the adjoining steppes were also a region rich in mineral and agricultural products. Thus the capture of northern Caucasia presented immense attractions and seemed to have fewer difficulties than would be encountered in extending operations into southern Caucasia. It is therefore possible that Germany intended to limit the scope of the offensive in 1942 to the northern side of the mountains and the capture of the Black Sea ports at their western end. The seizure of the Baku oilfields would have had little economic value to her unless she also captured Batum and the intervening country. This would have entailed an expenditure of force which might better be employed in an attempt to secure decisive results in the Moscow region—which, if successful, would automatically have placed all Caucasia under German control.

As a theatre of operations northern Caucasia presented no great difficulties, and was suitable for mechanized manoeuvre provided no serious attempt was made to cross the mountains or to force a passage through the defile at Derbend, between the eastern end of the Caucasus and the Caspian. The chief physical obstacles to be met outside the higher foothills were the Kuban, Kuma and Terek rivers, which, snow-fed, were in summer swift-flowing and deep. Northern Caucasia, especially in its western half, was by Russian standards well served with railways and roads. The main disadvantage from the German standpoint was that access to the system lay through the bottle-neck of Rostov. This drawback was all the greater because the railway communication of the force operating from Kotelnikov towards Stalingrad also ran through Rostov.

Nature of the Terrain

The railway of chief importance was the Rostov–Baku line. The junction on it at Bataisk gave connexions to Krasnodar and Novorossiisk, as well as to Salsk on the Stalingrad–Krasnodar line. Other important junctions were Tikhoretsk, where it crosses the Stalingrad–Krasnodar line; Kropotkin, where a



CAUCASUS OIL WAS THE PRIZE THEY SOUGHT

The first German thrust was aimed at Maikop and Krasnodar, en route to Novorossiisk. The Russians delayed this advance long enough to destroy the oil fields at Maikop and the refineries at Krasnodar: above, typical 'scorching' in a railway siding at Krasnodar, evacuated by the Red Army on August 18, 1942. Below, a German motorized column tears through the rich Kuban oil country. Krimskaya fell on August 22, and a few days later the enemy held all the Taman Peninsula.

Photos, Keystone; G.P.U.





TWIN GERMAN DRIVES IN THE CAUCASUS

Having gained several bridgeheads across the Don, the German penetration of the Caucasus followed two main routes: from the Rostov area through Bataisk and Krasnodar, aiming at Novorossiisk; and from the middle Don down the Stalingrad–Tikhoretsk railway, bound for Armavir, Maikop and the road to Baku. Top, a German motorized detachment pauses in preparation for the crossing of the Kuban river, towards the end of August 1942. Bottom, an enemy A.A. battery on the alert at the Black Sea port of Novorossiisk, captured on September 5. Centre, tanks and motor cycle units halted at the foot of the Pyatigorsk mountains.

Photos, Sport & General; Associated Press



HERE THE ENEMY HOPED TO FIND OIL AND WINTER QUARTERS

The oilfields of Bataisk, the Kuban, Maikop, Grozny and Baku were coveted by the Germans. The northern foothills of the Caucasus, with the adjoining steppes, were rich in mineral and agricultural resources. Novorossisk and Tuapse were important Black Sea naval bases; and the whole region offered attractive winter quarters for the German armies. Such was the lure which drew the enemy beyond Rostov, but by the end of December 1942 he was forced to realize that the prize was not to be his.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Félix Gordon.*

line from Krasnodar leads out into the Steppes and upper Manych district; and Armavir, from which a branch line serves the Maikop oilfields and continues to Tuapse and then along the coast to Batum and Tiflis.

Geographic and Economic Factors

Farther east again, where the Baku railway crosses the Kuma and Terek valleys, there are several branch railways, the most important being that from Georgievsk to Ordzhonikidze. The latter town in the Terek valley, which here forms a deep and wide bay in the Caucasus foothills, is the starting-point of the famous military road across the mountains to Tiflis, and of another leading to the Black Sea coast. Both these roads cross the mountains at great height and in winter are often blocked by snow. Being easily made impassable by demolition, they were not dangerous invasion routes, but they furnished invaluable supply lines for Russian forces penned into the Terek valley. These upper Kuma and Terek valleys are very fertile and, possessing many amenities, had been highly developed with sanatoria and other accommodation to which tired and sick workers were sent to recuperate. To the Germans the area presented special attractions as winter quarters for their troops, while a short distance farther east lay the Grozny oilfields, an objective of importance.

The above sketch of the geographic and economic factors involved will help to explain why the German operations took place in a number of widely separated areas, involving dispersion of force and absence of co-ordinated manoeuvre. (*Consult* map above.)

The German offensive at first took the form of two main thrusts—the first from Bataisk towards Krasnodar, clearing the coastal area and aiming ultimately at the capture of Novorossisk; the second from the Manych front directed on Armavir and Maikop. In the Bataisk area there was heavy fighting, the Germans attacking with strong armoured and air forces. The Russians probably had little more than strong rearguards, for their main forces must have become greatly disorganized in the retreat across the Don under heavy air attack, and were in no condition as yet to fight a defensive battle. The German armour broke through following the line of the railway to Tikhoretsk: on August 1, 1942, Kushchevka, 50 miles south of Rostov, was taken: and on August 5 Tikhoretsk fell.

As usual, fighting appears to have continued far in the rear of the armoured thrust, slowing up the advance of supporting infantry divisions. In particular in the coastal region, less favourable for armoured operations, Russian resistance was determined and German progress slower. Meantime, the thrust from the Manych front had made even swifter and more alarming progress. It would seem to have been carried out by mechanized columns following the line of the Stalingrad railway and its branch to Kropotkin. Salsk was taken on August 3 and Kropotkin (80 miles farther on) two days later. Resistance encountered seems chiefly to have been that of Cossack cavalry, who, though unable to check armoured troops, harassed their transport. By August 9 the Germans had reached Armavir and had probably penetrated beyond in the direction of Maikop, but fighting still continued in the Kropotkin and Armavir areas. Not until August 12 did the Russians admit withdrawal from Armavir, though by that time enemy advanced troops had reached Maikop.

Much the same situation had developed in the drive towards Novorossisk. Though fighting continued in the Tikhoretsk area, by August 11 the Germans were in the neighbourhood of Krasnodar, 70 miles farther south-west. The situation was highly confused, but there



CUNNING CAMOUFLAGE AGAINST RECONNAISSANCE

On a bank of the River Terek—which rises in the foothills of Mt. Elbruz and flows eastwards through Mozdok to the Caspian Sea—German tents are skilfully camouflaged to evade the eyes of Soviet scouts. Swift-flowing and swollen with melting snow in summer-time, the Terek, Kuban and Kuma rivers were—other than the higher foothills—the chief geographical obstacles confronting the invaders in their drive for the Caucasus oil.

Photo, Associated Press

is no doubt that both at Maikop and Krasnodar Russian resistance had greatly stiffened, bringing the German panzer thrusts to a halt until their supporting troops could close up. The Russian object at this stage was to gain time to sabotage thoroughly the Maikop oilfields and the Krasnodar refineries. In this they were completely successful, for, though the town of Maikop was taken about August 12, the Russians did not withdraw from the oilfields until the next day, by which time they had been thoroughly "scorched." The refineries at Krasnodar were also destroyed before the town was evacuated on the 18th. Here is a Russian war correspondent's story of the destruction of the Maikop wells:

"When Von Kleist's tank groups, advancing from Armavir, approached Kurgannaya, the highway to Maikop stretched before them into a night lit by flames of the burning oilfields. A single glow hung over Maikop, Apsheronsk and Neftegorsk—towns separated from each other by miles of travel. The middle-aged engineer who directed the work of destruction turned from his task for a few minutes to tell us: 'It was only a few weeks ago that I celebrated the 33rd anniversary of my arrival at these oilfields—in August 1909. . . . Now it's all going up in smoke. We are destroying the flowers that we may preserve the seed, and we do it without hesitation.'

"The Germans hoped that a sudden thrust would give them the oil. But they met with a check when trying to cross the Laba river, and the time they lost there cost them the prize—the oil of Maikop, so important for the production of aviation petrol. Two days before our troops left, the last trainloads of dismantled equipment left the oilfields for Tuapse. The oil itself was carried away by rail, or on motor lorries, or even on horse-drawn vehicles. What could not be got away was destroyed by the flames.

"Peaceful farmers and shepherds became soldiers overnight, soldiers specially versed in the tactics of mountain warfare. They took to the mountains in regular units. The women and children had left the oilfields some time before. The cattle had been driven to the mountains. The people of Maikop took their food with them to secret storehouses."

Foiled of their prize at Maikop, the Germans for a long time made no determined move southwards over the mountains towards Tuapse, contenting themselves with occupying the entrances to the pass in contact with the Russian troops holding it. On the Krasnodar front, however, the Germans were determined to reach Novorossiisk, and there was a period of heavy fighting in which the Russians for a time defeated German attempts to cross the Kuban river. On the south side of the river the country was highly defensible, the foothills reaching to the river and increasing rapidly in height towards the south. There was little scope for armoured manoeuvre, and it was mainly an infantry and artillery battle.

Enemy Drive to Baku

As early as August 9 there were indications that the Germans intended to drive south-eastwards along the Baku railway without waiting for the completion of their operations in the western Caucasus. On that date a German force was reported to be in the neighbourhood of Pyatigorsk—near Mineralnye Vodi, the spa on the Kuma river over 100 miles south-east of Armavir; but this was probably only an armoured car patrol which had met with no opposition. Three days later came the report of the occupation of Cherkessk, at the end of a short branch railway about half-way between Armavir and Mineralnye Vodi. South of Cherkessk there is an indifferent pass across the mountains, but the occupation of the town was presumably merely to provide flank protection against raids on the communications of the main eastward thrust. It was from Cherkessk that a German mountaineering party later ascended Mt. Elbruz (18,470 ft.), the highest point in Europe, and planted a swastika flag on the summit.

More important developments took place when, on August 15, a substantial German force appeared at Mineralnye Vodi and there met with strong opposition. This marked the beginning of a long period of fighting in the middle regions of the north Caucasus, to support which some German troops may have been withdrawn from the Maikop front. These operations developed into practically a separate campaign, and before describing them it may be better to follow those in the western Caucasus until they were brought to a standstill in the winter.

On the passes leading from Maikop to Tuapse little was to occur of importance for a considerable time, though there were frequent local attacks and counter-attacks by both sides. On the Krasnodar front there was heavy fighting before the Germans, towards the end of August, established a substantial footing across the lower Kuban. The first indication that the advance towards Novorossiisk was progressing was given when, on the 21st, the Germans claimed Krimskaya, south of the river. A few days later it became clear that the enemy had overcome resistance in the coastal regions and had reached the mouth of the Kuban, occupying the Taman peninsula. No attempt was made to use Kerch as a spring-board for attack during these operations. The fighting by now was taking place in the not very difficult pass over the western spurs of the Caucasus, and in the coastal region south of the Kuban mouth. Progress was slow; it was not until September 6 that the Germans claimed they had entered Novorossiisk, and it was five days later before the Russians admitted complete evacuation of the town. Even then a marine detachment appears to have retained a foothold in the outskirts from which the harbour could be harassed with fire, so that, though the Russians had lost the port, it was of little or no value to the enemy.

Germans Over-run the Kuban

For the rest of September and until the middle of October there was little change on this front, though fighting south of Novorossiisk continued and there were occasional Russian attempts to land raiding parties of marines to attack German coastal communications. About the middle of October the Germans began a determined effort to capture Tuapse, attacking from the Novorossiisk direction, and also by the pass leading from Maikop. Russian defence was stubborn, and though the Germans, after hard fighting in conditions made more difficult by snow,



GERMAN DEFEAT SOUTH-EAST OF NALCHIK

On November 1, 1942, the Red Army was forced to withdraw following a surprise attack in the neighbourhood of Nalchik, key to Ordzhonikidze, terminus of the great military road across the Caucasus (see map, p. 2425). The Germans failed to capture Ordzhonikidze, and in the subsequent counter-offensive Nalchik was retaken by the Russians on January 4, 1943. Above, a Red Army trench-mortar crew fires on an enemy concentration in full flight to the thick woods in the Nalchik region. Having knocked out a German tank (below) Soviet guards storm into the forest after the invaders.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Planet News





GERMAN SELF-PROPELLED ARTILLERY ON RECONNAISSANCE

In the mountains of the Northern Caucasus are these men of a tractor-borne artillery unit on a reconnaissance raid. Theirs was the thankless task of maintaining contact with an elusive enemy fighting on his own countryside. They were constantly exposed to harassing manoeuvres by Cossacks and guerillas who were completely at home in these inhospitable regions.

Photo, Associated Press

succeeded in crossing the Maikop pass by the end of October, they were met by Russian counter-attacks and failed to reach Tuapse. The situation again became practically stabilized and, if anything, the Germans had lost ground to Russian counter-attacks before they were compelled to withdraw to Maikop and Novorossiisk in consequence of the development of the Russian winter offensive.

We will return now to the German thrust along the Baku railway, which had reached Mineralnye Vodi by the middle of August. At this point Russian resistance was encountered, but no very determined attempt appears to have been made to hold the line of the Kuma.

Germans Reach Mozdok

But when, by August 26, the Germans reached Mozdok and Prokhladnaya, on the Terek, it soon became evident that Russian reserves had come into action and that every effort would be made to halt the enemy on the line of the river. The Germans made frequent and desperate attempts to force a crossing. On several occasions they gained a footing on the east bank, only to be driven back again by fierce Russian counter-attacks.

Colonel Lyaskin, of the Red Army, described the first German attempt to ford the Terek near Mozdok. They concentrated here the 3rd Tank Division of their 40th Tank Corps and the 370th Infantry Division.

"One pitch-black night they got an infantry battalion across to the southern bank and at daybreak, under cover of a smoke screen and an artillery barrage, built pontoons which enabled several tanks and about a regiment of infantry to cross. They lost heavily . . . but managed to gain a foothold at an inhabited point on the southern bank and continued to mass their forces. Using tanks and infantry, they tried to extend their hold in order to widen the base of operations. Despite stiff Soviet resistance they succeeded in gaining some ground and occupied two more inhabited points. This partial success cost them 20 tanks and a few hundred killed and wounded. A simultaneous enemy offensive on the adjacent sector east of Mozdok was soon mopped up and its remnants thrown back to the northern bank of the Terek."

Next day the Germans tried again to widen the area, and after being frustrated by Soviet counter-attacks they dispatched two more divisions—13th Tank and 111th Infantry—across the river. A battering ram composed of 90 heavy and medium tanks and about three regiments of infantry was sent crashing south along the road—the tanks echeloned three columns deep along this narrow sector. Soviet troops had to withdraw, but struck at the flanks of the enemy as his infantry poured through the gap, pinning them down and cutting them off from the German tanks. The road was later retaken by the enemy, but his troops had been prevented from spreading south and east. So the battle along this river barrier ebbed and flowed, with very heavy losses to the Germans, who had to pay an exorbitant price for every mile of ground they won.

All through September and until the end of October the situation changed but little, though fierce fighting was often reported and the Germans frequently made claim to successes which seemed to indicate a grave danger that they would be able to reach the Grozny oilfields.

The situation was all the more anxious because there was always a doubt whether the Russian Caucasus armies, so isolated from reinforcement and from their sources of munition supply, were in a position to maintain a prolonged struggle. It seems certain that if the German effort at this time had not been diverted to so great an extent by the Stalingrad operations, a good opportunity offered of exploiting initial successes in the Caucasus. Whether the Germans had insufficient reserves to maintain full-scale operations on what were practically three fronts, or whether the bottle-neck on their line of communications at Rostov limited the scale of the operations, remains a matter for surmise. Both factors probably were active, for in their offensive the Germans had made much use of satellite contingents, and in the Stalingrad operations they complained of supply difficulties. There can be no doubt, too, that Russian offensive operations on the Moscow front were successful in preventing the transfer of German reserves to the south.

It appears probable that in October the German General Staff exercised pressure on Hitler to divert effort from Stalingrad to the Caucasus, and there is reason to believe that the attack on Stalingrad from the south, supplied

Russians Evacuate Nalchik

through Rostov, was partly suspended in order to give fresh life to the Caucasus operations. The attempt to reach Tuapse from Maikop has been mentioned, and on October 28 an attack from a new direction opened on the Terek front. The left of the Russian position at this time extended into the higher foothills on the west side of the Terek valley, with Nalchik, a small town at the end of a 30-mile branch line from the Ordzhonikidze railway, as its local base. This part of the front was, however, lightly held and had been quiet. Having assembled a considerable force, including armour, the Germans succeeded in effecting a surprise, at least to the extent of attacking before the Russian front could be strengthened. Nalchik was almost at once evacuated, and the Russians fell back fighting rear-guard actions—clinging, where practicable, to the higher features on the flanks of the German drive.

At first the Germans made rapid progress and it was evident that they aimed at the capture of Ordzhonikidze, but as Russian reserves came into action

FIGHTING IN THE NORTH CAUCASUS SNOWS

After the fall of Rostov on July 27, 1942, the way was open for the German thrust into the Caucasus. In command was Field-Marshal Wilhelm List, regarded as Germany's leading exponent of mountain warfare, whose troops included the pick of the German Alpine and Tyrolese regiments which he had led in the Carpathian sector during the Polish campaign of 1939. But Red Army mountain fighters and guerillas of equal skill opposed them.

1, Russian automatic riflemen on patrol amid the snows. 2, Nazi ski troops on reconnaissance. 3, Red Army reinforcements moving up through the Caucasus foothills. 4, Soviet snipers lying in wait for enemy movement.









resistance stiffened and the advance slowed. It was not brought to a standstill until at least one and perhaps both of the roads leading to the Caucasus passes had been reached. But by the end of the first week in November the drive had lost its momentum, and Ordzhonikidze was not in immediate danger. A senior lieutenant of the Red Army gave the following account of an action near Ordzhonikidze:



SOVIET COUNTER-ATTACK AT MOZDOK

Mozdok, on the River Terek, guarded, with Ordzhonikidze, the road to the Grozny oil wells. Here Soviet resistance to the German advance was at times as stout as at Stalingrad. The failure of the enemy to take these two towns and so open the way to Grozny was fatal to their Caucasus plans. Above, Red Army forces launch a counter-attack on the outskirts of Mozdok. They advance down an incline under covering fire from light machine-guns.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official

"While fighting was in progress on the approaches to the town, Soviet troops on another sector were preparing a counter-attack. Several units made a skilful manœuvre and wrested the initiative from the enemy. A large German formation found itself cut off and was forced to pass to the defensive. The Nazis had turned three populated places into strong key-points. They had dug a large number of tanks into the ground, and erected block-houses and other defensive works.

"The Germans' plan depended on the success of the operations of their troops on the left flank, but they were let down. By climbing a steep incline opposite the main Nazi forces, a Soviet unit by-passed the enemy's strong positions and pressed hard on him from the mountain slopes. The Germans tried their hardest to get out of the encirclement, counter-attacking with infantry and tanks. But our troops beat off one assault after another and inflicted enormous losses on the enemy.

"Where the Germans succeeded in penetrating the ring our artillery came into action. When the enemy was thoroughly worn down, a Soviet detachment broke into one of the populated places from the north, while simultaneously another unit attacked from the north-east. The Nazis abandoned their equipment and fortifications and retreated hurriedly. They tried to fall back on other populated places and dig themselves in, but our troops, following on their heels, gave them no chance to do so."



PANZER COMMANDER

Commander of the Panzer divisions in the Caucasus campaign was General Ewald von Kleist, here seen (right) with one of his officers. On February 1, 1943, he was promoted to the rank of Field-Marshal.

Photo, Associated Press

Already the Germans, in addition to suffering from difficulties of supply owing to increasing snowfalls, were having the worst of it in Russian counter-attacks. Failure to capture Ordzhonikidze amounted to a serious German reverse, for a success here would have deprived the Russians in the Terek valley of their main base, and have afforded excellent winter quarters. On November 19 the Russians gained a very substantial success in this area, claiming 140 tanks and 70 guns. From then onwards the Germans were presumably maturing plans for withdrawal to a less exposed position and to winter quarters; but it was not until the third week in December that the ever-worsening situation at Stalingrad and on the middle Don made rapid retreat inevitable, with the Russians in hot pursuit.

The German offensive of 1942, after great initial success, failed in Caucasia, as at Stalingrad, to achieve its objects, and had been fought to a standstill before the Russian winter offensive was launched. It is not an exaggeration to say that in the Caucasus a very great opportunity was lost, mainly owing to the demands made by the Stalingrad front, but also probably to over-confidence inspired by the early successes after crossing the lower Don. The German High Command may then well have thought that the defeated and isolated left wing of Timoshenko's armies had little residual fighting value. The Russian recovery after a temporary collapse was amazing. How the Soviet Army was reorganised and supplied in the subsequent operations was a remarkable military achievement.

Wonderful Russian Achievement

POLITICAL TRENDS IN NEAR & MIDDLE EAST JULY—DECEMBER, 1942

Chapter 222 embodied Mr. Kenneth Williams' authoritative survey of political and domestic events in this vital area during the first half of 1942. Here he continues the narrative to the end of that year. It was a period in which the countries of the Near and Middle East were preoccupied by home affairs, an understanding of which is essential to the full appreciation of the war situation

At the beginning of the second half of 1942 the great shadow of the Axis advance towards the Nile valley hung depressingly over the whole area between the Levant and India, like one of those dust-storms familiar to travellers in Middle Eastern deserts. The issues were formidable enough: if the Alamein line, reached by Rommel by July, were not to hold, the whole Middle Eastern position, despite its strength in Palestine and Syria, might be overrun and the Axis might reach the coveted oil of Iraq and Iran. But—though this may be an over-simplification of the situation—the peoples of the Middle East knew their dust storms and how, given patience and fortitude, those visitations pass. Anxious, occasionally flurried, but still adequately confident in ultimate Allied victory, they held to the course they had taken. Yet it would be extravagant to pretend that they foresaw how swiftly and overwhelmingly the tide in North Africa was to turn.

For the calmness in Egypt, which had shown considerable alarm over the fall of Tobruk, the wise and confident lead of the Premier Nahas Pasha was largely responsible. Certain financial interests did manifest acute anxiety, and a run on the banks was threatened; but the Egyptian Government, through the medium of the Press and the mosques, induced belief in the Allies' ability to protect the Nile valley; and the agricultural population in particular kept a very even keel. The attitude of the Palace, moreover, was one of becoming tranquillity. Yet for Axis propaganda the opportunity was of course superb, and ample attempt was made to use it, though with little effect. While some Egyptians were disappointed because the British did not take the offensive against Rommel earlier, the vast majority averted their eyes from the actual fighting to concentrate on domestic issues. Here they found plenty of excitement in the expulsion from the Wafd party of a noted orator, Makram Pasha Ebeid, together with 21 of his followers—many of them Copts like himself. He had criticized Nahas Pasha for subserviency towards the British. Breaking away, these men called themselves the "Independent Wafdist Group" and became embittered towards the greatest party in Egypt. Owing to the ability of Makram Ebeid his group constituted a danger to the political situation, a danger culminating in the publication of his "Black Book," containing charges of nepotism and corruption on the part of the Government of Nahas Pasha.



WHERE BRITAIN AND RUSSIA JOINED HANDS

Strategically and economically of prime significance in the war were the countries of the Near and Middle East, all of which, with the exception of neutral Turkey and Saudi Arabia, were by the end of 1941 assisting the Allied cause. The joint occupation of Persia—a centre of Axis intrigue—by Soviet, British and Indian troops in August 1941 (see Chapter 185) enabled Britain and Russia to establish a common front and opened up communications between the Allies along the 875-mile-long Trans-Iranian Railway and the Persian Gulf.

Towards the end of August the Egyptian Government, possibly stung by the taunts of Makram Ebeid that they were lacking in the true spirit of Egyptian nationalism, appeared to adopt a slightly chauvinistic tone. They introduced a Bill to make the use of Arabic compulsory for all foreign firms in Egypt. Moreover, negotiations for the purchase by Britain of Egypt's cotton crop failed, and as a consequence the Egyptian Government themselves decided to buy all the cotton offered to them up to May 1943.

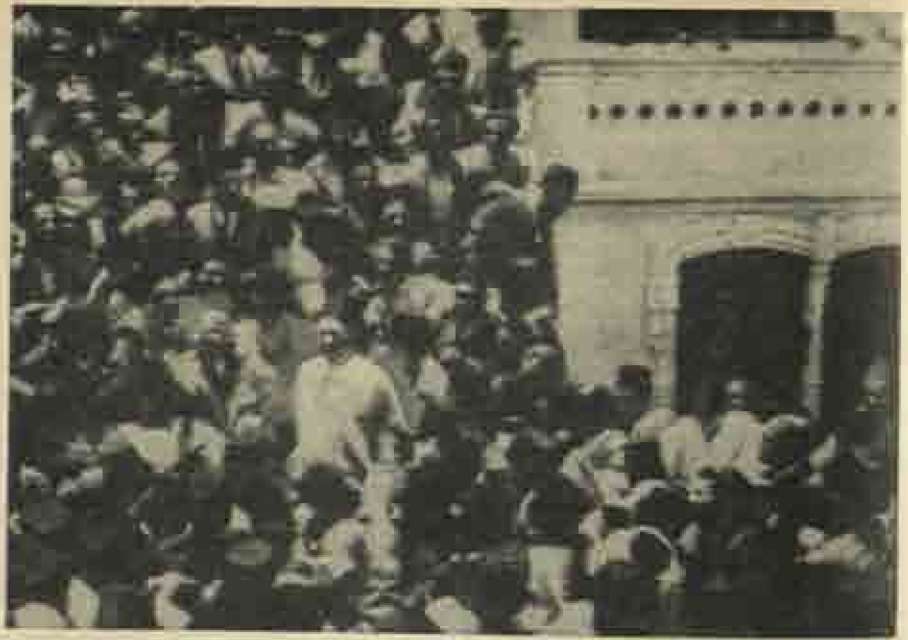
Mr. Churchill's visit in August had a galvanizing effect. He met most of the leading Egyptians, including King Farouk and Nahas Pasha, and visibly inspired them with his buoyancy and confidence in the outcome. Mr. Churchill was followed by Mr. Wendell Willkie, whose visit acted as another tonic. Very easily, however, most of the Egyptians slipped back into preoccupation with domestic affairs. This preoccupation, which included some anxiety over the food situation, was noticeable in the celebrations which King Farouk proposed for the 1,000th anniversary of the great Moslem University, Al Azhar, for September 18. The King wanted Sheikh el Maraghi, Rector of the University, to make a speech, and himself to provide great entertainment. But the Premier took exception to the proposal. He complained that he had not been duly informed beforehand of the plan, and as for speech-making, nobody but himself should make a speech on such an occasion. The celebrations were thereupon dropped. But it was not to be the last time that Nahas Pasha would find himself in difficulties with his Sovereign.

Public attention was again directed to the outside world by the Allied victories against Rommel. After the capture of Mersa Matruh on November 8 it was reported from Cairo that there were no longer any enemy forces remaining in Egypt. On November 12, speaking at the Saadist Club, Nahas Pasha was able to dwell on the importance of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty, claiming that Egypt, now "respected by all and proud of her sovereignty and independence," would be able to take a worthy place among the

Allied Powers. He added, with a significance which was to become more apparent in 1943, that Egypt looked forward to the day when Arab and Eastern States, with Egypt at their head, would form a strong and united bloc.

The opposition to Nahas Pasha was indeed discomfited by the turn of events. At the opening of Parliament on November 19 the Premier read out an assurance by Britain that Egypt should participate in the Peace Conference whenever Egyptian interests were concerned. This promise helped to buttress the position of the Egyptian Government in face of charges, made by Makram Ebeid in a petition to the King, of favouritism and abuse of military law. So, by December, Egypt was again losing interest in military operations, and reverting to absorption in home affairs. The country welcomed the expulsion of certain Italians in the Palace entourage, and ended the year with the Bairam Festival, during which all internal bitterness and anxiety about the war seemed to be forgotten.

Anglo-Egyptian Concord



CHEERS FOR EGYPT'S PRO-ALLIED PREMIER

Nahas Pasha, leader of the Wafd Party and Prime Minister of Egypt, remained loyal to the Allied cause through the dark days preceding the final expulsion of the enemy from North Africa. Above (centre, in white), he receives an ovation from the crowd outside the Egyptian Parliament, Cairo, after he had reaffirmed Anglo-Egyptian solidarity in an important speech on June 24, 1942.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Perhaps Persia, of all the Middle Eastern countries, was the most perturbed in the period under review. The war pressed cruelly upon her, so that minor fears too often became major anxieties. In July there was a tendency in northern Persia (particularly in the sensitive Tabriz region) to think that Germany would succeed in conquering the Caucasus; though there were at no time any signs of real panic the whole country wondered what would be the outcome of the fighting in Egypt. At this period Allied stock was undoubtedly at a low figure in Persia. The food situation was serious and the Government, manifestly afraid of rioting, asked the Allies to import wheat and barley. For the shortage of grain the people blamed both their own Government and the Allies. But the situation was indubitably aggravated by the practice of hoarding, and Allied offers to import wheat were to some extent dependent on the Persian Government's willingness to take Allied advisers into the Anti-Hoarding Department.



MR. CHURCHILL AND GENERAL SMUTS IN CAIRO

During his journey to Russia in August 1942 Mr. Churchill met General Smuts in Cairo, where they had an all-day conference. Above they are seen together in the garden of the British Embassy. While in the Egyptian capital Mr. Churchill also conferred with King Farouk, Nahas Pasha and Allied Chiefs of Staff. He visited the El Alamein front and inspected Empire troops. The Prime Minister's visit had a galvanizing effect, politically and militarily.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Nor was the question of internal security wholly satisfactory. To the request that certain suspects should be handed over to the British military authorities the Persian Government returned a dilatory answer. It was partly in consequence of this matter, though mainly owing to inability to grapple with the food problem, that the Premier, M. Soheily, resigned on July 30, to be succeeded two days later by Qavam es Saltaneh, an elder statesman who had formerly occupied the office of Premier. The outgoing Premier had, as he confessed, failed to gain the confidence of the Parliament (the Majlies) and the Press. The new administration received an overwhelming vote of confidence by 109 votes to seven.

Troubled Situation in Persia

The team which the new Premier formed was probably better than Persia

had had for 12 months. Qavam as Saltaneh began encouragingly by arresting all the suspects whom the British had wanted, though he refused, in the name of Persian sovereignty, to deliver them to the Allied authorities. Actually, even for making the arrests, he was attacked by the Majliss, a difficult body of men who owed their position to the former Shah, Riza Pahlevi. These deputies were in fact an irresponsible body and in no sense commanded popular approval, but their influence for a policy of inaction or reaction was considerable.

The country was profoundly disturbed over the food situation. Many Persians believed that much of the grain which used to go from the northern provinces to the south of Persia was being taken by the Russians for their own purposes; but in any case there was administrative lethargy by the Persian authorities. The position later became graver still, and in November the capital had less than one day's grain in stock.

Grave Grain Crisis

During his visit in August Mr. Churchill convinced the Shah that the integrity and independence of Persia were safe. Mr. Wendell Willkie, who came to the country a few weeks later, made a gesture that appealed strongly to Persians in taking the Shah for a flight in his Liberator.

In September the Press manifested signs of getting out of hand; two newspapers were forced to close down for a short while, and a third was suppressed altogether. The elation caused by Britain's triumph in the Western Desert and by the Anglo-American landings in North Africa was diminished, in face of food and currency problems, by fears that the war might yet take a long time to end, and that as a result Persians might be ruined.

In return for a solution of the currency crisis the Allies agreed to import cereals to make up any deficiency in the bread supply up to the time of the 1943 harvest, with the proviso that the Persian Government were to be responsible for all internal transport of supplies. Finally, a Food Agreement was signed as between Persia, the United Kingdom, and the United States, on December 4, for the provision of 25,000 tons of wheat as soon as possible—a gesture which, as the Premier said, would "give the lie to Axis propaganda alleging non-co-operation between Persia and the Allies."

But the Persian Premier had his opponents, and the Food Agreement could not be immediately implemented. It was hardly surprising, therefore, that on December 8 riots occurred in Teheran. Order was not restored until December 12, and in the meantime a British battalion had had to be sent to the capital to protect oil installations and military stores. Since the Persian authorities were lax in dealing with the riots, the Chief of Police and 140 others, including schoolmasters and journalists, were arrested. The Premier, some of whose political opponents had been implicated in the riots, might well complain, at the opening of the Majliss on December 20, that his Government was the first administration to realize that Persia could not be immune from the effects of the war; nor could he be expected in a day to repair the neglect of preceding Governments.

up the post-war Iraq. Especially he wanted to reform the educational system of his country, and in August announced that he proposed to go to Egypt to try to get the help of Egyptian educationists in this matter. But Nuri Pasha did not turn his attention to home problems only. His view, expressed in August, was that, in the improbable event of the Germans getting through the Caucasus, Iraq ought to declare war and fight on the side of the Allies.

Towards the end of September General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson visited Iraq, and told the authorities that the British Army there would cause as little inconvenience as possible. He added pointedly that it was importing its own food



AMERICAN REINFORCEMENTS IN THE MIDDLE EAST

This happy photograph of a newly-arrived American soldier being greeted by a British Tommy at a Middle East base symbolises the invaluable aid in men and materials given by the United States Government in that area to hard-pressed Britain in the critical early days of 1942. It was first revealed on May 2 that American reinforcements were arriving in the Middle East in strength. They were based mainly in the Nile Valley, Eritrea, Persia and the Levant.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

In Iraq the advance of Rommel's army towards the Nile induced a certain pessimism, but no sign of serious unrest. The more open friends of the Allies rallied in the emergency, and the Government in July arrested 35 Fifth Columnists. Yet, as it became apparent that the line at El Alamein was being held, complacency set in. No interest seemed to be shown in the Russian campaign, and Iraqis generally settled down to domestic affairs. As in neighbouring countries bordering the war zone, internal economy was disrupted by military measures and supply traffic, and of course there were food problems.

The energetic Prime Minister, Nuri Pasha, was eagerly planning to build supplies, and that Britain was trying to satisfy Iraq's essential needs. But the economic nettle is notoriously a difficult one to grasp. It was owing to differences upon how the country's economic position should be tackled that the Cabinet resigned on October 6. Two days later a new Cabinet was formed under Nuri Pasha. About this time the British Minister of State in Cairo, Mr. R. G. Casey, visited Iraq to occupy himself there with problems of supply and inflation. He advised the Iraqis to do all in their power to decrease the cost of living and to prevent speculation in land values.

Such advice did not seem to be fully comprehended by the Iraqis, who appeared to relish the notion of political

change far more than that of economic change. In his Speech from the Throne on November 1 (see illus., page 2211) the Regent certainly dwelt more on the political side than on the economic side. "The cause of the United Nations," he said, "is the cause of the Arab nations. The aim of the Government's foreign policy is friendship with Arab countries and with friendly neighbours." He referred appreciatively to the operation of Lend-Lease facilities, another sign of Iraqi-American friendship being the opening of the Iraqi Legation in Washington. There followed a pointed reference to the "explicit promise given by our Ally, Britain, through Mr. Churchill and Mr. Eden, of eventual independence for those Arab countries whose independence is being delayed."



The British victories in Egypt and Libya, followed by the Allied landings in North Africa, caused an enormous impression. Iraqis felt particularly elated by the prospect of the liberation of those whom they called their fellow-Moslems in North Africa. At this time the Iraqi Parliament pressed the Government to join the United Nations. After messages had been exchanged between President Roosevelt and Nuri Pasha, it was agreed that Iraq, incurring no obligations additional to those assumed under the Anglo-Iraqi Alliance of 1930, should be allowed to become one of the United Nations.

Next to Egypt Palestine was most menaced by the approach of the Afrika Korps to the Nile, but it exhibited a notable calmness. Among certain sections of the Jewish community there was acute alarm, but no panic. Rather, as the weeks passed by without any development of the threat, did attention tend to revert to the chronic question of Jewish and Arab rights. On August 6 it was announced in the House of Commons that a Palestine Regiment was to be formed. This new unit of the British Army was to consist of separate Arab and Jewish infantry battalions for general service in the Middle East. The existing Palestine companies in the Buffs would be incorporated in the new regiment, for which it was hoped to obtain at least 10,000 additional recruits.

SUPPLY ROUTE TO RUSSIA

In July 1942 the Combined Chiefs of Staff in Washington demanded greatly increased deliveries of supplies to Russia by the Persian route. Maj.-General D. H. Connolly, head of the American Persian Gulf Service Command, undertook to do 'the impossible' by adding 25 per cent to what was regarded as the maximum possible figure, so great was Russia's need. Grain was dispatched by the Trans-Iranian railway: left, sacks are carried to a box-car. Below, a United Nations convoy arrives safely at Basra, Iraq.

Photos, British Official; Associated Press



Among the Arabs this announcement appeared to produce no reaction. Jewish political leaders, on the other hand, seemed to view the statement as a partial victory for the Zionist claim of a "Jewish Army," and did all they could to induce Jews in Palestine to join the forces. Yet, despite all their endeavours—and a certain amount of intimidation in this matter was alleged—recruiting figures fell. As the year drew to its close, rifts within the Jewish movement became acute. There were, for instance, sharp attacks by the Jewish Agency on the Ichud (Unity) movement sponsored by Dr. Magnes of Jerusalem University, a scheme favouring a bi-national Palestine in a union of "Arab Semitic States."

Political Strife in Palestine

During November the Arabs for the first time manifested signs of serious disquiet. This development was due to the adoption by the Inner Zionist Council of the "Biltmore Resolutions," passed in New York the previous May, which demanded, among other things, the establishment of a "Jewish Commonwealth" in Palestine, the formation of a Jewish Army under its own flag, and control of immigration by the Jewish Agency. The year ended therefore with a tendency for local politics to overshadow the war.

The most sensitive, though not the most reliable, barometer in the Middle East was provided by Syria and the Lebanon. At the beginning of July there was in these two countries a perceptible fall in the prestige of the British, so that would-be mischief-makers had a great chance. To uncertainty about the future course of the war were added worries resulting from the food situation, political intrigues, and continued suspicion of French policy. The month of July had not run out before there were strikes and demonstrations in Damascus and Beirut—movements in which the supply and price of bread had their part as well as political motives—and the police had to fire on the agitators. Nor were the native people unaware that the respective attitudes of the French and the British were not exactly the same, for the French appeared to resent the slightest sign of British interference in their mandatory sphere, while the British took the view that the military security of the region demanded that



THE SIEGE IS LIFTED: THEIR ORDEAL IS OVER

On November 22, 1942, a special communiqué issued from Moscow announced that Red Army troops advancing from the north had made contact with the Stalingrad garrison, thus relieving the city. Their three months' ordeal over, these women—like thousands of others—emerged from their shelter home for the last time, carrying the few personal belongings they had been able to salvage. Outside the city fighting went on, and it was not until February 2, 1943, that the Don troops completed the annihilation of von Paulus's army *Photo, Planet News*



GERMAN ONSLAUGHT SEEN FROM THE SKY

Smoke arising from bombs bursting on the great marshalling yard at Stalingrad (see plan in p. 2418) and countless roofless buildings testify to the pounding the city suffered. In this photograph, taken from an enemy plane, the Volga appears as a dark patch on the right. Two main railway lines are seen: one running north to Saratov, the other swinging west to Moscow. One thousand planes started the bombardment on August 23, 1942. The enemy counted on gaining the city in two days and dropped leaflets to that effect. So vast and widespread were the fires that most of the leaflets were in ashes before they reached the ground.

Photo, Associated Press



GERMANS ARRIVE AT MAIKOP TO FIND ITS OIL ABLAZE

How great was the importance the enemy attached to the seizure of the Maikop oilfields intact was shown by the direction of their first thrusts into the Caucasus foothills; one from Rostov through Bataisk to Krasnodar—the Maikop area refining centre—and the other from the Manych front through Armavir to Maikop itself. Maikop was evacuated by the Russians on August 12, 1942, and Krasnodar six days later; but not before the precious extraction and refining plants had been thoroughly scorched, as shown above. *Photo, Keystone*



Photo, Pictorial Press

STALINGRAD DEFENDERS MOVE FORWARD ALONG ANOTHER LIBERATED STREET

On August 23, 1942, the Germans struck their first blow at Stalingrad with a 1,000-plane air assault. Four days later Hitler declared: "The fight for the mighty Bolshevik bastion of Stalingrad has begun. Stalingrad will fall." For weeks von Hoth's men raged at the city's approaches, but General Chuykov's 62nd Army held fast. From October 14-16 the final and most savage battle was fought. The Germans were halted, and later encircled and annihilated. Red Army reinforcements are here passing through a battle-scarred street on their way to the defence lines.

its peoples should not lose faith in the pledges which Britain had given them. Matters were scarcely improved by speeches made by General de Gaulle when the Fighting French leader visited the area in August.

American voices partly helped to ease the situation. On September 10 Mr. Willkie arrived in Beirut from Ankara;



IRAQ DEFENCE CHIEFS
General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson, G.B.E., K.C.B., D.S.O. (left), C.-in-C. Persia and Iraq Command, created in September 1942, with H. E. General Nuri Said, Prime Minister and Minister of Defence of Iraq, during Gen. Wilson's visit to Teheran, shortly after his appointment.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

when he was asked whether the United States recognized Lebanese independence he stated that all the Allies had agreed to that. The appointment, in October, of Mr. George Wadsworth as American Consul-General and Diplomatic Agent in the Lebanon and Syria meant, moreover, that the U.S.A. had in some way recognized the independence of these two countries. When presenting his Letters of Credence to President Naqqash in November, indeed, Mr. Wadsworth said that his Government sympathized with the local aspirations for independence, and looked forward to the full independence of the country after the war.

In August the Lebanon had a new Premier, Sami Solh, a Moslem judge. His choice was somewhat surprising in a land with so many Christians, but he was well received. The task of dealing with the wheat situation seemed beyond his powers, however, and no one was astonished when, by October, he had become unpopular with the Lebanese Christians. The Maronite Patriarch even accused him of Moslem favouritism. On September 27 Damascus celebrated the first anniversary of Syria's independence.

British reverses in Africa in the summer of 1942 did not seriously disturb Turkey's calm. Some Turkish journalists, indeed, took the line that even if Egypt were lost Britain would remain unshaken. Meanwhile, there were Russo-Turkish relations to consider. On July 1 it was announced that M. Achikalin would succeed M. Aktay as Turkish Ambassador in Russia—a timely change, for M. Aktay had been a gloomy interpreter of Russo-Turkish relations. Quick as ever to make trouble, the Nazis at this time were inventing clauses in the Anglo-Soviet Treaty which, they said, directly affected Turkey.

On July 9 the Premier, M. Saydam, died in Istanbul. For the last 20 years he had been an intimate associate of



MR. CASEY IN PERSIA
The Rt. Hon. R. G. Casey, British Minister of State in the Middle East, toured Persia and Iraq in October 1942. Above he is being met (left) by Sir Reader Bullard, K.C.M.G., C.I.E. (facing camera), British Minister to Persia, and Assad Bahader, chief of the Protocol, Teheran, at Teheran airport.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Ataturk, founder of modern Turkey. It is a tribute to the Ghazi that he left so many able lieutenants, and so M. Sarajoglou, a financial and foreign affairs expert, duly followed as Premier. Sarajoglou soon made it clear that developments in Africa would not deflect Turkey from her policy of neutrality. Meeting the Grand National Assembly on August 12, the new Premier outlined Turkish policy. He said that his country was resolved to keep out of the war,

ARABS OF THE NEW PALESTINE REGIMENT
On August 6, 1942, Sir James Grigg, Secretary of State for War, announced in the House of Commons the Government's decision to create a Palestine Regiment of the British Army, consisting of separate Jewish and Arab infantry battalions for general service in the Middle East. The existing Palestinian companies of the Buffs were to be incorporated in the new regiment, for which the recruiting aim was an additional 10,000 men. Below, a squad of Arabs of the new regiment on the barrack square.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



but that if it were attacked it would resist to the last man. He defined Turkish neutrality as "active and conscious," as opposed to the merely passive kind. The Anglo-Turkish Treaty was the "very expression of reality," while the Turkish pact with Germany was a clear manifestation of the same policy. The following day M. Menemenjoglou, a very able Turk devoted to neutrality, was appointed Foreign Minister.

About this time it was announced that M. Hellen, French Ambassador in Ankara, had declared his adherence to de Gaulle, whom he went to join in Syria. He was succeeded by M. Bergery, a diplomat of a quite different complexion, who declared, when he reached Turkey, that he would do nothing to embarrass the German representative, von Papen. The Nazis were still hoping to win Turkey over without fighting, though they saw that the final decision depended on the course of events in Egypt and on the Don. They extracted some profit from the bad blood engendered by the bomb trial in which two Russians were involved. This issue dragged on for a long time before the Turkish Courts, which at last, in November, decided that the original sentence on the Russians of 20 years' imprisonment should be reduced to 16 years, eight months.



MEN WHO GUARDED TURKEY'S NEUTRALITY

On October 29, 1942, the 19th anniversary of the founding of the Turkish Republic, President Ismet Inonu reviewed an impressive military parade in Ankara. Included were mechanized and motorized units, parachute troops and air formations, and infantry: a section of the infantry is seen above passing the saluting base.

Photo, Associated Press

Turks in general were rather sceptical of the possibility of an early end to the war, and many hoped that Russia and Germany would mutually exhaust themselves, though few believed that the Nazis had any prospects of final success. The British victory at El Alamein and the landings in North Africa came as an intense relief to the Turks, who frankly were surprised by the completeness and swiftness of the Allied triumph.

Domestic Grievances In Turkey

As in other countries in the Middle East, the man in the street turned to pressing things at home. Here he found real grievances in the food shortage. Corruption was rife, and the Black Market flourished. The Government seemed to be becoming unpopular owing to their failure to ameliorate the situation, but it was disappointing to find that, in their perplexity, they sought a scapegoat in the foreign communities in Turkey. In December they introduced a tax on the rich, which hit the Armenians, Greeks and Jews very hard.



GENERAL DE GAULLE ON TOUR OF SYRIA

Just a year after British, Australian, Indian and Free French forces had overthrown the pro-German Vichy Government in Syria (the armistice was signed on July 13, 1941), Gen. de Gaulle toured the Middle East. Above he is seen driving (left) with Gen. Catroux through the Syrian capital, Beirut. British and Free French differences regarding the political implications of military necessities in Syria and the Levant were a disturbing element in Allied relations during the period reviewed in this chapter.

Photo, Free French Forces

Chapter 247

GROWING WAR EFFORT OF THE DOMINIONS JULY DECEMBER, 1942

This Chapter carries on from Chapters 211 and 221 the story of the ever-increasing contribution made by the Dominions to the cause of the United Nations. Here we bring our review of their activities, both at home and overseas, to a point just beyond the remarkable events of October–November, 1942—The Battle of Egypt and the Allied landings in North Africa—which led to the transformation of the whole strategical scene in the Mediterranean theatre of operations

THE six months from July to December, 1942, was a period when, happily even if inevitably, worrying differences of viewpoint between the Mother Country and Canada, Australia and South Africa were erased. Australia, which had been perturbed though by no means daunted by the suddenness with which she was involved in very imminent danger, rallied under Mr. Curtin's leadership and stripped for action, domestic friction and misunderstandings with Great Britain being effectively dissipated. Mr. Mackenzie King's Government in Canada surmounted both strong criticism from the Conservative Party and certain sections of the Quebec Nationalists, and by its financial assistance, whole-hearted support of the Empire Air Training Scheme, and increased production particularly, shattered any illusions about Canada's determination to see the achievement of victory. The despondency naturally created in South Africa by the tragedy of Tobruk was soon overcome, and the Union became the repair shop of the Middle East. Opposition to the war, though still existing, waned as confidence grew in the sagacious leadership of General Smuts. New Zealand, to whose door peril had been brought as close almost as to Australia, remained as steadfast as ever and simply redoubled her efforts to meet the menace shared by all members of the Commonwealth.

CANADA

In Canada one of the outstanding features of the period was that the House of Commons gave final approval (July 23) to the Government's Bill to amend the Mobilisation Act, thus enabling drafted men to be used for oversea service. Voting against the Bill were anti-conscriptionist Quebec Liberals, and members of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation. A fundamental factor in the Dominion's war effort, naturally, was the attitude of French-Canadians towards the war following the Franco-German armistice and the setting-up of the Vichy Government. The enemy attempted to make capital out of the embarrassment in which it believed the Canadian Government was covered as a result of the capitulation of France, but Goebbels' propaganda efforts came to nothing. The Canadian Government, knowing better than anyone else the general temper of the nation, terminated diplomatic relations with the Vichy Government on November 9.

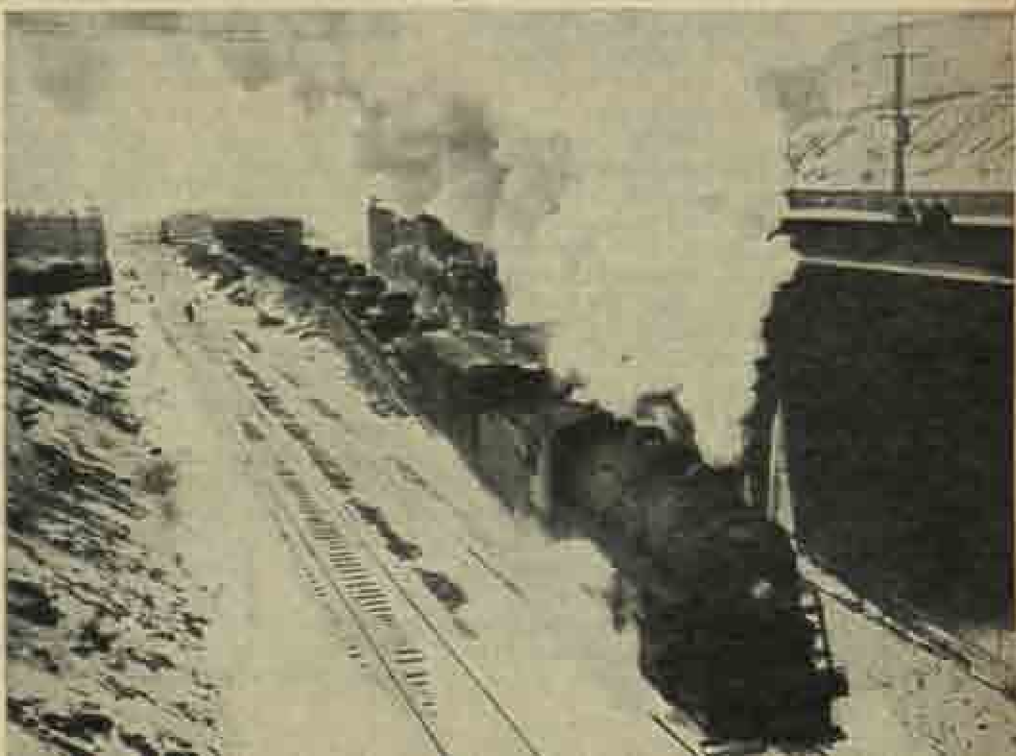
The Prime Minister, Mr. Mackenzie King, announcing this decision, explained that it was necessary because of the conduct of Marshal Pétain's Government in ordering resistance to the forces of the United Nations. He drew a distinction between the termination of diplomatic relations and their severance. Relations with the Pétain Government actually terminated when it ordered French forces in North Africa, and the fleet, to fight. Mr. King said this action made it clear that the Vichy Government no longer represented the people of France; it also made it clear to the French people that the Vichy Government no longer represented them and could not be recognized by Canada. The Prime Minister added: "Our faith in the integrity and purpose of the French people has been sustained by the thousands of Fighting French who have never ceased to fight on at our side. It will, however, be important to guard against misunderstandings of the conduct of some Frenchmen.

Relations with Vichy Broken

"We cannot be sure that the forces of the United Nations will meet with no resistance from French forces, but in no circumstances can that mean that we are at war against the real France. Whatever resistance there is will, in reality, be German resistance." He warned the nation against subtle Nazi propaganda in the French language directed to the French-speaking people

CANADIAN TANKS FOR BRITAIN AND RUSSIA

A trainload of tanks arrives at a Canadian port for shipment to Britain and Russia. By the end of 1942 Canada had the second-largest tank arsenal on the American continent. She specialized in two types, the Ram and the Valentine, the latter consisting of 40,000 parts exclusive of armament. By September, 400 tanks a month were being made. In 1942 Canada supplied Russia alone with tanks worth more than £12,000,000. *Photo, Canadian Official*









THEY HELPED TO PROTECT THE ATLANTIC LIFE-LINE

Men of the Royal Canadian Navy and the Royal Canadian Air Force shouldered a heavy responsibility when the enemy extended his U-boat operations to the coasts of North America and even into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. By 1942 one-third of the Atlantic escort work was being done by the R.C.N. Top left, plotting the course of a N. Atlantic convoy at Canadian naval H.Q. Top right, attack on a U-boat located in the Gulf of St. Lawrence by R.C.N. Fairmiles, light, speedy craft specially designed for work in this waterway. Left, Kittyhawk fighter pilots—trained under the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan, inaugurated on December 16, 1939—rush to take off on a U-boat patrol. *Photos, Canadian Official*

of Canada. Generally, satisfaction was expressed at the Prime Minister's announcement that the Vichy consulates and consular agencies throughout Canada were to be closed.

A great deal of discussion was caused by Sir Lyman Duff's report on the "organization, authorization, and dispatch of the Canadian Expeditionary Force to Hongkong in October 1941." Sir Lyman, who was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, presenting the report on June 7, had said that "in spite of the disaster that overtook it, soon after its arrival in Hongkong, it was an expedition of which Canada can, and should, be proud." The report was the result of an inquiry, asked for by the House of Commons, which lasted practically a month. There had been a good deal of criticism inside and outside Parliament on various aspects of the Expeditionary Force. In a debate in Parliament, Colonel Ralston, Minister for Defence, on July 28 said that the Expeditionary Force had been sent to gain time in the fight against the Japanese and that purpose had partly been achieved. A day was set aside for discussion of the Royal Commission's report; the debate was the stormiest of the session. The upshot was a victory for the Government. The Conservative amendment calling for the reorganization of the department of National Defence, on the grounds of alleged inefficiency disclosed by the Hongkong report, was defeated by 130 votes to 34.

On the whole, Communist activity was not considerable. On September 25 the leader of the Communist Party and some of his associates surrendered to the Royal Canadian Mounted Police after hiding to evade internment orders. An appeal board was set up to sit in Toronto to deal with their appeals against the orders. The Communists surrendered so that they might appear voluntarily before the authorities to appeal against the orders, which, they argued, prevented them putting their full energies behind the country's war effort.

At the other end of the political scale, a noteworthy event was the election, on December 11, of Mr. John Bracken, Premier of Manitoba, as Leader of the Canadian Conservative Party. He was chosen at the second ballot of the party convention, 800 delegates being present. Mr. Meighen, after 35 years of public life, made his valedictory address. Mr. Bracken had the support of Mr. Meighen, as well as of the Progressive Conservatives. Among other things, the new Party platform advocated plans for rehabilitation and reconstruction; slum clearance and national housing; open emigration of like-minded peoples regardless of racial origin; appointment of a National Labour Relations Board empowered to arbitrate in disputes; and appointment of a Minister for Social Security. Mr. Bracken urged the people's right to expect determined efforts on the part of their leaders to smash barriers to world trade.

Big Step Up In Production

In the industrial field Canada, once entirely dependent for machine tools on the United States and Great Britain, found herself, like Australia, exporting such items to both these countries. Production was estimated in September to have been stepped up by some 800 per cent since the outbreak of war. Munitions and Supply officials said that almost half the machine tool output was going to help war industries in the United States. Co-ordination of the production and supply of machine tools was being handled by Citadel Merchandising, Ltd., a Crown company organized in 1940. Actually, the first Canadian Lancaster bomber flew over the Malton airport, Ontario, on August 6, and was handed over to a Canadian air crew to take to England. Production costs in many items were being cut down—for example, it was announced in August that the cost of a Bren gun had been reduced from about £97 (first quarter of 1941) to £48 (first quarter of 1942). Rifle output had doubled since the first quarter of 1942. On August 24 the Minister for Munitions, Mr. C. D. Howe, announced that facilities were being provided to double Bren gun production. Maximum output, amounting to several thousand guns a month, was expected between December 1942 and March 1943. Canadian plants were turning out 12 types of guns, 16 types of gun-carriages and mountings, and ten kinds of small-arms ammunition. In terms of

manpower, numbers were constantly increasing at factory benches. On September 4, it was officially stated that 50,000 Canadians were employed on aircraft construction compared with 1,000 in 1939. On September 8 the Canadian Trade Commissioner, Mr. Bryan, in England, said that Canada was launching a ship every four days and turning out 400 tanks a month, many of which were being sent to Russia. By September, too, Canada was responsible for a third of the Atlantic convoy work. The first Canadian-built Catalina flying-boat, launched on September 17, had a cruising range permitting it to fly from Halifax to Vancouver and back to Winnipeg—in other words, half-way across Canada.

On September 24 the Department of Munitions and Supply announced an Order-in-Council approving Federal assistance estimated at between $2,000,000 and $2,500,000 for the development of iron ore deposits at Steep Rock, in the Thunder Bay region of North-West Ontario. On October 21 a vast expansion of Canada's wartime explosives and chemical programme was announced by the Minister for Munitions. It involved 10 new plants, six being major projects. Curtailment of non-war production was further foreshadowed by the Chairman of the Wartime Prices Trade Board, Mr. Donald Gordon, on October 23, who said that the programme would be undertaken in an orderly, progressive way, and that first moves would be the elimination of non-essential lines. Standardization and simplification of the lines were to continue. He hinted at an extension of rationing on the part of consumers, once the curtailment programme operated, and at a scheme to pool profits of concentrated industries.

Priority for War Needs

On October 23 the Central Government passed an Order-in-Council controlling workers in all Canadian coal-mines, the majority of base metal mines, and those engaged in primary steel production. It was estimated that 75,000 workers were affected. All were exempt from compulsory military service, and were obliged to continue at their own trades. On November 5 the ownership and management of one of Canada's most important aircraft plants was taken over by a specially formed Crown company—the National Steel Car and Aircraft Company, at Malton, Ontario, chiefly engaged in making Lancasters.

How Canada was producing war materials at tremendous speed was shown on November 12 by the Minister for Munitions, who said the present rate of production was valued at 2½ billion dollars a year. The total value of war orders to that date was over 6 billion dollars. He announced that Canada had become a full member of the Combined Production and Resources Board along with the United States and Great Britain; that about 30 per cent of Canadian munitions production was for the Canadian forces at home and abroad; that nearly 50 per cent went to Britain, Russia and other European fighting areas; and that the remaining 20 per cent went to the U.S.A., China and Australia. The Minister predicted that Canada's merchant shipping tonnage would reach 1,000,000 tons by the end of 1942, and about 1,500,000 tons in 1943. The Government estimated that by the end of the year Canada's war production would have cost 2½ billion dollars for 1942 and that in 1943 it would be 3½ billion dollars. On November 26 it was announced that Canada hoped to turn out three Mosquito planes a day in 1943.

Perhaps the best summary of Canada's remarkable war effort was given by the Prime Minister who, on December 3, astonished a New York audience by saying that the invasion convoy to North Africa of November 9, 1942, carried 40,000 Canadian mechanized vehicles; that Canada had the largest small-arms factory on the American continent, and the second largest tank arsenal; that more than 300,000 military vehicles had been produced; that aircraft production had risen from 40 a year to 400 a month; that in 1942 Canada had supplied Russia with tanks worth more than £12,000,000 and other war supplies to the same value; and that over 600,000 Canadians were in the Forces, volunteers overseas numbering about 180,000.

Premier's Summary of Results

Food rationing became more stringent. It seemed strange to many Canadians, living in a country with an abundance of food, but they recognized it was necessary because of the diversion of supplies to the British people and to the Canadian and Allied Forces. The Minister of Agriculture, on December 29, announced that priorities on Canadian foodstuffs were in the following order: first, Canadian and Allied armed forces; second, the population within the war zone, such as the British people; and, finally, the Canadian people. Although

NEWFOUNDLAND TERMINUS OF THE ATLANTIC FERRY

From factories in Canada and America planes for Britain were taken to Newfoundland and thence flown across the Atlantic. Below (right to left) are a Consolidated Catalina I Amphibian, a Consolidated Liberator I and a Lockheed-Vega Ventura I, waiting to be ferried (see also illus. p. 1741). By the end of 1942 75,000 Canadian workers were engaged in aircraft production, specializing in nine types.

Photo, Canadian Official



the Canadian people were placed last, it did not, of course, mean that anyone in Canada would go short of food, but rather that essential and concentrated foods, such as bacon and cheese, would go first to fulfil Canada's British contracts. Nevertheless, there were shortages of butter and bacon because of heavy shipments abroad, the dairy industry, like the pig industry, being engaged in production for war export.

Rationing was necessary. Actually, meat rationing was introduced in Canada early in May, the ration being fixed at approximately 2 lbs. per week.

Stringent Petrol Rationing

By September 26 the Government was obliged to halve the petrol ration for 250,000 motorists owing to shortage of petrol. Three weeks earlier Canada's huge newsprint industry was brought under an allocation system by order of the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, which gave the newsprint administration the power to concentrate production where electric power and labour were most readily available.

A string of important official visitors was headed by the King of the Hellenes who arrived in Montreal on June 29. Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands was in Canada in August; so was Sir Walter Monckton, who spoke of wartime visits to Russia, Middle and Far East, Malta and the United States of America, as Director-General of the British Ministry of Information.

On October 29 the Ministry of National Defence announced that difficulties concerning the installation of equipment would delay the training of parachute troops in Manitoba until next spring, although the United States Army would continue to train contingents of Canadian parachute volunteers. The original decision to train Canadian parachute troops was made public on July 27. Captain H. E. Proctor, aged 31, was on August 11 appointed to the command of Canada's first parachute battalion. Next day it was announced that there was in existence a combined American-Canadian force modelled on the lines of the British Commandos, for offensive warfare. It was to be known as the "First Special Service Force."

There was tremendous interest throughout Canada when descriptions of the landing at Dieppe by war correspondents who were present were released for publication. The official communiqué paid a warm tribute to the bravery of the landing forces, the majority of whom were Canadians and who had a Canadian commander in Major-General J. H. Roberts (see illus., p. 2405). Reactions throughout Canada, generally, were in the spirit of the operation itself. The casualties were deplored; but on the whole the verdict was that the operation was worth while. (*See* Chapter 243.)

An interesting development on the political side occurred on October 6 when the Prime Minister appointed three new French-Canadian Ministers, thus fulfilling his promise to restore the normal representation of Quebec in the Cabinet. Major-General L. R. Lafleche, of Ottawa, became Minister of National War Services; Mr. Ernest Bertrand, of Montreal, became Minister of Fisheries; and Mr. Alfonse Fournier, of Quebec,



AUSTRALIA EMPLOYS DEHYDRATION

A welcome addition to Britain's wartime larder was dehydrated meat from Australia. Here the meat is passing through the mincers, an early stage in the process. The Food Council ordered a vast extension of meat canning on August 5, 1942, and to conserve supplies for the Forces and for export two beefless days per week were ordered for civilians on September 16.

Photo, Sport & General

Minister of Public Works. On October 21 Mr. Mitchell Hepburn, Premier of Ontario, and a most outspoken critic of the Government, resigned, and was succeeded by Mr. Gordon Conant, Attorney-General. Mr. Hepburn said it had not been his desire to seek a third term of office.

In October Mr. Humphrey Mitchel, Minister of Labour, visited Britain for three weeks, touring production centres, and commented: "I marvel that human beings can work so hard." Colonel Ralston, Minister of Defence, also visited Britain in October, saying there was collaboration between Canadian, British and United States Offices staffs for the purpose of preparing the three armies for joint offensive action. The Minister for Munitions, Mr. C. D. Howe, was another visitor. The Prime Minister left Ottawa on December 1 for New York to deliver an important speech at the Pilgrim Society's dinner, and was the guest of President Roosevelt at the White House during the week-end. In the diplomatic field the most interesting event was the arrival in Ottawa on October 12 of M. Fyodor Gusev, the first Russian Minister to Canada.

Fittingly enough, one of the last important subjects raised at the end of the year was a United States-Canada Post-War Trade Pact. A new link between America and Canada was forged when joint accord was announced between the United States and Canada, both pledging themselves to work for a post-war world of lower tariff barriers, greater production, and broader trade among nations. It was announced by the U.S. State Department from Washington that the Governments of both countries would shortly begin talks between themselves and with other countries "with a view to establishing the foundations upon which we may create after the war a system of enlarged production, exchange and consumption of goods for the satisfaction of human needs in our country, in Canada and in all other countries willing to join in this great effort."

NEWFOUNDLAND

The geographical position of Newfoundland made "Britain's oldest colony" one of the United Nations' most valuable possessions when war broke out. Jutting out into the Atlantic hundreds of miles east of the American continent, the island provided vital sea and air bases for the long drawn-out Battle of the Atlantic. Without those bases for Allied warships and long-range aircraft it might not have been possible to maintain the supply life-line between front-line Britain and the United States and Canada.

The recognition of this one outstanding fact should make the United Nations unfailingly grateful to what has been called "Britain's Cinderella Colony." But Newfoundland, with her sturdy, independent people, has done much more than provide bases for the Allies.

Quite early in the war two regiments of heavy artillery went overseas to become part of the British army. They helped to guard the shores of England when the threat of invasion was at its height (*see* illus. p. 1182). Later one regiment went to North Africa and fought there with considerable distinction. Mr. Attlee, Deputy Premier and





ALLIED WORKS COUNCIL MARSHALLED AUSTRALIA'S RESOURCES

The Allied Works Council was set up in Australia on February 26, 1942, under the Hon. E. G. Theodore, to put industry on a total war footing, backed by the entire resources of the Commonwealth. Above are examples of its manifold achievements: left, arched framework of a huge store built for the U.S. Army Service of Supply; right, a heavy coastal fortification.

Photos, Australian Government

Dominions Secretary, sent the following message of congratulation to the 166th (Newfoundland) Field Regiment, R.A.: "I have learned with very great pleasure of the high praise which the Newfoundland Field Regiment of the Royal Artillery have earned for the part which they played in the operations in North Africa. . . . I know that whatever hard fighting lies ahead we can look to the men from Newfoundland to give further proof of their hardihood and courage and to earn fresh laurels for their country on the field of battle."

Newfoundland's fishermen, recognized as among the finest seamen in the world, flocked to the Royal Navy. From the sparse population of the straggling island, and even from the practically empty spaces of Labrador, 4,000 men went to serve in His Majesty's ships.

Many hundreds more went to the R.A.F. and the Canadian Air Force. The colony, which had had to turn to the Mother country for financial help before the war, gave more than £100,000 to Britain to buy night-fighters for the defence of the homeland—and Newfoundlanders manned them.

Although frequently described as "Britain's oldest colony," Newfoundland, up to February 1934, enjoyed full Dominion status. Then, financial difficulties arose and, following a visit by a Royal Commission, the responsible element was temporarily suspended in consideration of a measure of financial aid from the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, the island's relationship to the British Commonwealth of Nations remained on a Dominion basis.

Moreover, war brought some measure of prosperity to the misty land across the Atlantic, though even before there were any signs that this would be so, Newfoundland decided that she could get along without the £1,000,000 a year which Britain had given her before the war to balance the budget. Increased taxation and internal economies have enabled her to lend the Motherland nearly £2,000,000 since then.

In addition to the British and Canadian bases and air-fields, Newfoundland has a great United States Lease-Lend base (see illus., p. 1741). A whole new township has sprung up at Argentia, and much of the work has been done by Newfoundland labour.

In the face of all these calls on her limited man-power, Newfoundland has continued her fishing industry and has provided valuable mineral resources for the growing Canadian steel industry.

On July 26, 1942, the King, on the recommendation of the Australian Government, approved of Lord Gowrie continuing in office as Governor-General for a further period of one year from January 1943. By that

AUSTRALIA

time the friendly American invasion of Australia was well under way. Arrangements for accommodating thousands of American troops were made more difficult by the necessity of housing thousands of Australian troops. To execute the vast constructional programme, which was converting Australia into a major offensive base against the Japanese, the Allied Works Council marshalled the entire constructional resources of the Commonwealth, both public and private.

The A.W.C. had been established under National Security Regulations promulgated on February 26, 1942—eleven days after the fall of Singapore. Mr. Curtin commissioned the Hon. E. G. Theodore, a former Federal Treasurer, then in retirement from political life, to undertake the organization and administration of this body, which was to have as its function the building, maintenance and extension of

U.S. AIRMEN HELPED FEND OFF THE JAPANESE

On March 17, 1942, it was revealed that thousands of American soldiers, airmen and technicians had crossed and were crossing from the United States to theatres of war in the S.W. Pacific, with Australia as their base. Left, American pilots check a map prior to harrying Japanese shipping in the Timor and Arafura Seas. Right, a U.S. fighter takes off down a runway newly-cut through the Northern Australian bush.

Photos, Sport & General





roads, docks, aerodromes, munition plants, oil storage installations, stores, warehouses, camps, hospitals and a miscellany of related items in the inventory of total war.

On September 4 the Prime Minister, Mr. John Curtin, issued details of the war supplies which had been coming in increasing quantities to Australia from the U.S.A. under the Lease-Lend agreement during the previous 9 months. Tanks, guns and aeroplanes amounted to more than half the total imports; the rest included tinplate, machine tools, petroleum products, railway rolling stock and motor vehicles. Of considerable importance were machine tools because, obviously, they were the key to large-scale production and their value could only be measured by the surprisingly increased output of Australian war factories. Mr. Curtin announced that Australia was defraying the entire cost of maintaining and supplying American forces in the Commonwealth.



Sgt. W. H. KIBBY, V.C.
(Australian Military Forces)
Posthumously awarded the V.C. for outstanding courage and devotion to duty during the Miteiriya Ridge fighting, south of El Alamein, in October 1942. He took charge of his platoon when his commander was killed and made several lone sorties against enemy strongpoints, finally being killed by point-blank machine-gun fire as he advanced to clear an enemy pocket.



Pte. P. E. GRATWICK, V.C.
(Australian Military Forces)
Another hero of the Miteiriya Ridge fighting, also posthumously decorated. When withering fire had reduced his platoon to only seven members, Gratwick set out alone to destroy the two enemy posts from which opposition was coming. The first he silenced with hand grenades; the second he charged with rifle and bayonet, only to fall under a burst of machine-gun fire.

Photos, Australian Government; Sheffield Newspapers

This meant supplying provisions, camp stores and accommodation, beds in Australian military hospitals, the provision of buildings and services for American hospitals (including one of the largest and most modern civilian hospitals in Australia), besides the supply of a variety of military stores and equipment. On top of this, of course, was the availability to the U.S.A.F. of all airfields and R.A.A.F. establishments, together with accommodation, general supplies, meteorological training, radio-location and transport. As to the merchant and naval side of reciprocal aid, Australia made the organization of the Royal Australian Navy available to the Americans for general services. A few weeks earlier, on August 5, the Australian Food Council had laid down a policy of continuing to feed the armed forces in the south-west Pacific, to feed Australians to an extent necessary to maintain a total war effort, and to share in feeding the Allied nations outside the Pacific zone.

'Austerity Living' Campaign

About the same time Mr. Curtin announced that the third anniversary of the outbreak of war would be marked by the launching of a new £A.100,000,000 Conversion Loan, and that simultaneously there would be inaugurated what he described as an "austerity living campaign." He pointed out on August 25 that Australia must live as a nation under immediate threat of invasion. The people must have fewer amusements and recreations, especially in directions in which the spending of money would use man-power. On September 4 the Prime Minister declared that it could then be said Australia had definitely entered on a new economic life. Normal standards of living would be reduced by one third. Plans provided for fewer racing, greyhound and trotting meetings; liquor restrictions, unless consumption was reduced; café and hotel meals to be cut to three courses and luxury meals prohibited; and a drastic increase in penalties for black-market and profiteering. A Bill was introduced in the House of Representatives under which stern penalties for black-marketing, including official obloquy of profiteers, was proposed. A black-market firm could be fined £A.10,000 and guilty parties sentenced to a year in prison. Even in the lower Courts, convictions would carry a minimum of three months' imprisonment and a fine of £A.1,000 for a company. Doctor Evatt, Attorney-General, moving the Second Reading of the Bill, said the Government proposed that penalties should operate retrospectively. Profiteers might also be publicly denounced by placards and radio, and obliged to give particulars of offences on their stationery.

Nevertheless, Australia's war effort was criticized in the U.S.A. General MacArthur, on October 30, flatly denied American correspondents' criticisms of Australia's contribution. He said that "no nation in the world" was making a more supreme war effort than Australia. The General's blunt rebuke was addressed to certain American newspapers which had asserted, in effect, that Australia was not pulling her weight.

One of the keenest debates of a Constitutional character arose when the Attorney-General asked leave on October 1 to introduce a Bill to ratify certain sections of the Statute of Westminster.* The proposal was opposed

EMPIRE CASUALTIES
September 3, 1941, to September 2, 1942

	United Kingdom	Dominions	India & Burma	Colonies	Total
Killed	21,215	8,558	1,847	729	43,119
Wounded	17,292	20,195	2,744	892	41,321
Prisoners	23,187	19,223	1,322	5,424	49,433
Missing	59,198	52,676	[illegible]	17,887	196,062
Total	130,695	92,517	[illegible]	24,709	311,489

(Deaths from natural causes excluded. For Empire Casualties, September 3, 1939—September 2, 1941, see p. 1852.)

* The Statute of Westminster, passed in the House of Commons in 1931, provided that thenceforward no Act of the Imperial Parliament at Westminster should apply to a Dominion unless it was explicitly stated in the Act that the Dominion wanted it or agreed to it. But the Statute also provided that Sections 2-6 inclusive—the operative Sections—should not extend to a Dominion unless adopted by the Parliament of that Dominion. Up to October 1942 these Sections had not be ratified by Australia, New Zealand and Newfoundland. In respect of these three Dominions the Colonial Laws Validity Act, 1865, remained in force; that is to say, any laws they might pass would be void if they conflicted with Acts of the Imperial Parliament on the same point. However, at the Imperial Conference of 1926—from which the Statute of Westminster sprang—it was declared that in practice "legislation by the Parliament at Westminster applying to a Dominion would only be passed with the consent of the Dominion concerned." This demonstrates the barrenly legalistic nature of the Australian controversy referred to in p. 2447.



NEW ZEALANDERS IN THE WESTERN DESERT

Sappers of the New Zealand Division in the Western Desert laying the indispensable railway across the Western Desert to Tobruk. It was captured by the Afrika Korps during their eastward sweep in 1942, but was retaken and restored to action by the 8th Army later in the year.

From the painting by Capt. Peter McIntyre; by courtesy of the New Zealand Government

on the ground that it could be interpreted in Australia, and overseas, as evidence of disunity within the British Commonwealth. [Almost identical reasons prevented ratification five years before, when Mr. Robert G. Menzies was Attorney-General. The Bill then reached the second reading stage and was abandoned.] On this occasion the Government said that to give the Statute full effect Parliament need only ratify sections 2 and 6. The Solicitor-General had said that he was seriously concerned at the practical drafting and administrative difficulties which had arisen, especially during the war, and that in his opinion the adoption of sections 2 and 6 would remove most of the doubts and difficulties.

Statute of Westminster Controversy

After a lengthy discussion, in which most of the speeches were made against the Bill by Opposition members, the House permitted its introduction. The Economist, London, on October 10, commented: "It may be doubted whether even Goebbels would bother to read propaganda from the actual formal ratification of such an academic nature." Eventually the Bill was passed; and on November 25, Mr. Emrys Evans, Under-Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs, replying in the House of Commons to the question whether the Statute was approved in advance by the Parliaments of all the Dominions before its passage through the United Kingdom Parliament, said that the Statute contained a clause which was inserted at the request of the Governments of Australia and New Zealand under which certain of its provisions would not apply to those two Dominions until adopted by their respective Parliaments. He pointed out that a Bill for that purpose had just passed through the Australian Parliament, and added that no such legislation had yet been passed by the New Zealand Parliament.

Proposed Constitutional Reform

On October 1 a Bill authorizing a referendum on Constitutional reform was presented in the House of Representatives by Dr. Evatt, the Attorney-General. The proposed changes did not specifically withdraw powers from the States, but in so far as new powers were to be given to the Federal Government they were to take precedence over the States' powers, and the authority of the State Parliaments was to be much reduced if the Bill was passed. A great deal of controversy followed. On December 2 the Australian Constitutional Convention adopted a Draft Bill recommended by the Drafting Committee for the transfer by the States to the Commonwealth of certain specific powers to legislate for post-war reconstruction for five years after the war. State Premiers agreed to introduce the Bill in their Parliaments before the end of January 1943.

As the difficulty of the task of beating back the Japanese—then firmly lodged



NEW ZEALAND WOMEN PRODUCE RADIO COMPONENTS

Secondary industries assumed enhanced importance in New Zealand's war economy. She turned out many items—such as tommy-guns, mortars, minesweepers, and training aircraft—which formerly had been thought beyond her capacity. Above, a radio workshop.

Photo, New Zealand Official



GENERAL SMUTS AND HIS RIGHT-HAND MEN

With General Smuts (right), G.O.C. South Africa's Springbok Army, are Lt.-General Sir Pierre van Ryneveld, Chief of General Staff (left), and Mr. F. C. Sturrock, Minister of Railways and Harbours and Hon. Commodore of the South African Seaward Defence Force (see caption below). On June 5, 1942, General Smuts announced important changes in the Dominion's Army organization, creating new Inland and Coastal Commands. *Photo, Sport & General*

in all the islands north of Australia—became more obvious, the demand for more urgent military action became strident. Part of the edge given to this cry was provided by the fact that the Australian militia, unlike the A.I.F. (Australian Imperial Forces) could be used only for home defence.

In November Mr. Curtin proposed to amend the Defence Act so as to permit the use of the militia throughout the south-west Pacific area—in other words, to man the outer defences of Australia, such as New Guinea, where the position had become serious.

Manning the Outer Defences

On December 10 Mr. Curtin, at the height of a heated debate on the Bill to authorize the use of the militia outside Australian-controlled territory, threatened the resignation of his Government. The Government's position was delicate because it relied upon two Independents for its life. After the Labour Party had promised to support the Government, one Independent Labour member moved a surprise amendment opposing the imposition of any form of compulsory service outside Australian territory. The Prime Minister rejected the amendment, which was designed to test the House direct on the subject of approval or disapproval of Mr. Curtin's plan; and when a vote was taken even Labour malcontents voted with the Government rather than endanger their Party membership. An immediate result was the dispatch of militia forces to the New Guinea front.

(Military operations in New Guinea during this period are described in Chapter 249.)

A significant sign of the Government's belief, even at this early stage, that the fortunes of war were changing with advantage to the Allies, was found in the fact that the Commonwealth Government decided, on December 18, to lift the ban on the Communist Party, which had been declared illegal in June 1940 by the Menzies Government. Actually, the decision followed an agreement for the exchange of Ministers with Soviet Russia, and, even more recently, the Communists' strong support for Mr. Curtin's plan for the extension of the operational area of militia service to the south-west Pacific. The lifting of the ban also applied to the Communist Press, but regulations were promulgated making it an offence to advocate the use of force for the advancement of any political issue.

Besides this sign of confidence there was another—the establishment of a Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction. In fact, the Allied Works Council had, as one of the phases of its activity, the further development of Australia as an industrial nation, the Council's commission being to increase the output of strategic minerals.

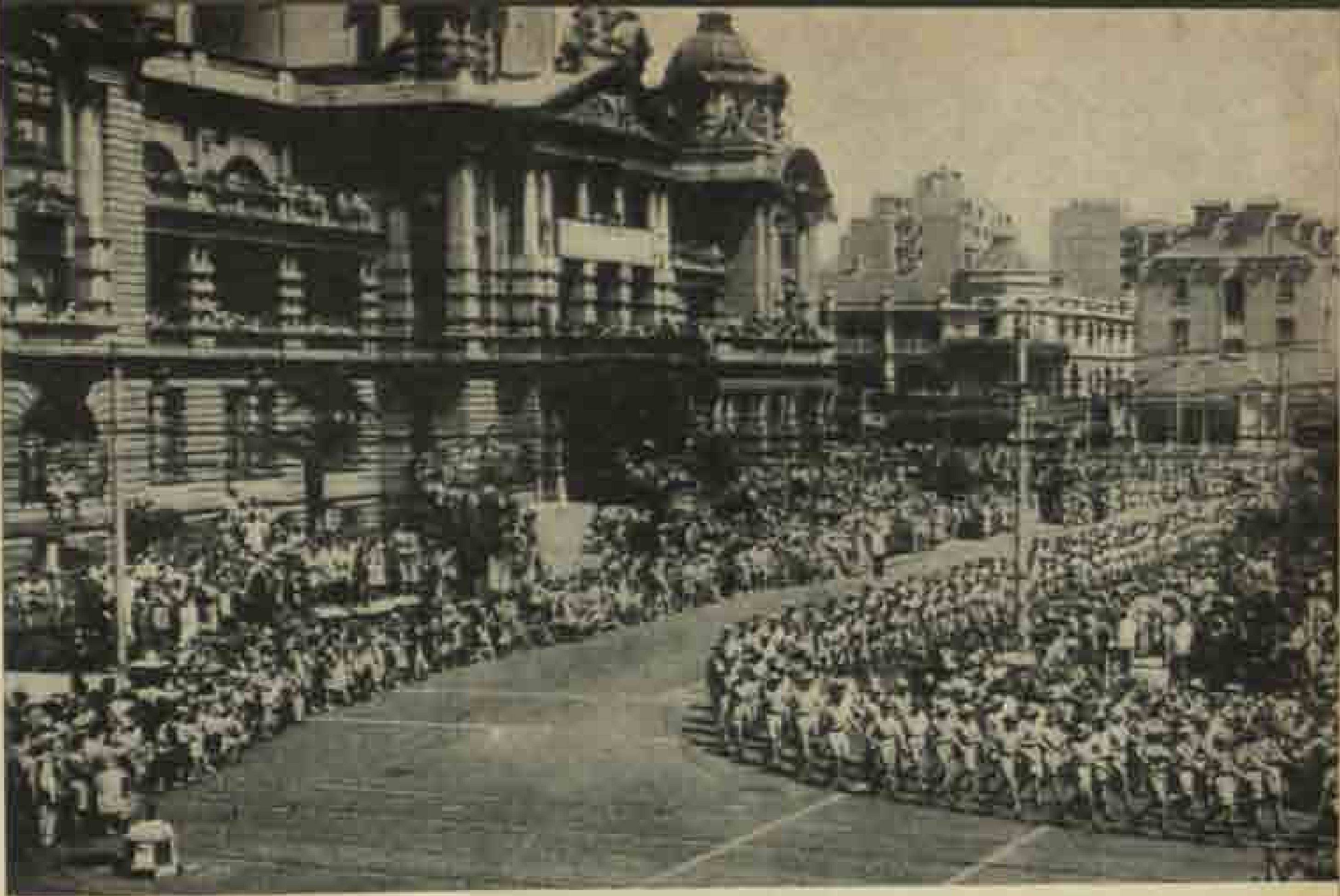
Foundations of the Future

The Council, for example, engaged in the production of mica—the all-purpose mineral of Central Australia. Thus, in the words of an official publication, "in converting Australia into an operational base, the Allied Works Council is simultaneously laying the foundations for the next era in the developmental history of the nation." So as to make the best possible use of shipping available in Australian waters, the Prime Minister created a Ministry of Shipping. Previously, control of shipping had been divided between the Departments of Supply,



ON RECONNAISSANCE FOR SOUTH AFRICA'S DEFENCE

On June 22, 1942, the South African Seaward Defence Force and the South African R.N.V.R. were amalgamated under one command as the Union Naval Force. There was criticism of this designation on the ground that it did not sufficiently identify the organization with the Dominion, therefore from August 1 a new name was announced: South African Naval Forces. Working with these are coastal reconnaissance squadrons of the S.A.A.F., one of whose Avro Ansons is here seen returning from a patrol. *Photo, South African Official*



HOME FROM MADAGASCAR: A DURBAN WELCOME

On December 1, 1942, the first contingent of South African troops to return from active service arrived in Durban from Madagascar. They received a tumultuous welcome; above, the scene in front of the city hall as the men marched past the Deputy Mayor. They belonged to the 1st City Regiment, the Grahamstown and Pretoria Regiments and attached units.

Photo, Sport & General

Commerce and Customs, and the upshot was that the most effective use of ships was impossible. A quicker turn-round had been demanded by the United States; and the new Ministry met this call when it took control of the dispatch and routing of vessels and the loading and unloading of cargoes.

War in the Pacific imposed a serious strain on Empire communications in so far as they affected Australia. On December 8, Sir Campbell Stuart arrived in Melbourne for preliminary discussions with the Imperial Communications Conference, over which he presided. Other delegates were: Mr. R. J. P. Harvey and Colonel Zambra, from the United Kingdom; Sir Gurunath Bewoor, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, India; Mr. E. B. Rogers, acting High Commissioner for Canada; Mr. J. G. Young, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, New Zealand; and Mr. B. McVey, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Australia. By December 22 the Conference reached an agreement on a future Imperial Communications policy—the Empire Governments were to be asked to accept the agreed proposals as soon as possible. The Conference also considered communications between the Empire and the United States of America.

The importance of the inter-relationship between Australia and New Zealand as bulwarks of the Allied position in the south-west Pacific was emphasized by a visit which the Prime Minister of New Zealand, Mr. Peter Fraser, made to Australia in July 1942 to confer with the Prime Minister of Australia. Conversations turned on questions relating to the war efforts of both Dominions and on the general war situation in the Pacific region. Accompanying Mr. Fraser was Mr. Hurley, United States Minister to New Zealand. In his own words Mr. Fraser wanted to discuss with Mr. Curtin "the constantly serious position" in the Pacific. He said that the United Nations recognized it was unsafe to underestimate Japan in the struggle. Mr. Fraser returned to New Zealand on August 1.

Politically, the situation in New Zealand was stable enough although the Opposition continually called for a National Government, while the Labour Government steadily refused all appeals. Although there was no Coalition Government there was co-operation in the Cabinet—members of the Opposition took part in certain Cabinet meetings. In October this compromise suffered a setback when the Opposition decided to withdraw all representatives from the Government. However, two Opposition Ministers who dissociated themselves from their Party's decision rejoined the Cabinet at Mr. Fraser's request, but not as National Party (Opposition) representatives. They were Mr. J. G. Coates, Minister of Armed Forces, and Mr. A. Hamilton, Associate Minister of Supply and Munitions. A no-confidence motion, moved on October 16 by the Opposition leader, Mr. S. G. Holland, based on the Government's handling of certain questions and the effect on the country's war effort, was defeated by 47 votes to 17.

NEW ZEALAND

While from time to time the Government was criticized, the fervour it had for the prosecution of the war was never questioned. On October 9 Mr. Fraser, denying that New Zealand's role in the Pacific was merely defensive, acknowledged a possibility that her part in the conflict might have become obscure and, perhaps, even distorted. "When we entered the war," he said, "we entered

it with all we had. We were convinced that the Mother Country was entering the war in the cause of humanity and that everything was at stake and we threw everything we had into the scales. We have never receded from that." The Prime Minister explained that this meant that "New Zealand's harbours, bases and all her other facilities were at the disposal of the United Nations to defeat the greatest tyranny that had ever threatened."

Relatively there was very little disturbance on the home front. Perhaps the largest was confined to the coalfields. It was announced on September 29 that, on condition that they did not strike again during the war, the sentence of one month's imprisonment on 189 miners would be suspended. On October 11 it was proclaimed that the important Waikato coal-mines were under State control. The Government issued regulations controlling these fields for the duration of the war under a directorate of Government representatives, owners and workers, with the approval of the miners' union.

State Control of Mines

Controversy over the administration's handling of the Waikato strike had been running high. So that coal output might be stepped-up, the army was releasing hundreds of miners. Priorities were granted on materials for building new homes in mining regions. Actually, it was the Government's treatment of the strike, threatening as it did serious consequences to railways, industrial establishments and domestic consumers, which led to the decision by the caucus of the Parliamentary Opposition (National Party) to withdraw its six representatives from the War Administration of the War Cabinet. [In June it had been decided to form a War Administration comprising seven Government and six Opposition members, with complete responsibility for all matters connected with the war, in addition to the small War Cabinet, which would act as executive.] It was only after attempts at settlement had failed that the Government took over control for the duration, while safeguarding the companies' and shareholders' interests.

Inflation was something many critics feared. A remarkable, indeed a far-reaching, step in the war-time economic programme of the Dominion was taken on December 16 by the inauguration of a stabilization scheme designed to avert the danger of inflation and to keep wages and other income costs and prices at their existing level. In essence, the new scheme included the pegging of wages, business rents, the prices of farm produce and salaries and allowed no variation unless the cost of living were to rise by 5 per cent, including the 2½ per cent rise which had occurred since the last wages order was issued. A special war-time index of 110 items, including oven fuel, clothing, furniture, food stuffs and other necessaries, was the yardstick by which the Government announced it would measure the movement of prices. The object was to keep the cost of such essential items at the existing level, thus enabling that part of wages which is used to purchase necessary items to have a constant purchasing power. The Prime Minister announced that the national income had increased by about £N.Z.50,000,000



NATAL GAVE A SQUADRON

On August 30, 1940, an R.A.F. Squadron of Spitfires was named the 'Natal Squadron,' in recognition of a gift of £200,000 from that Province to the British Ministry of Aircraft Production. The Squadron did great service in the Battle of Britain, scoring the first night 'kill.' Above, the Squadron's tally—68 kills and 47 probables—painted on a fragment of an Me-110.

Photo, Keystone

since 1939; that purchasable goods had dropped by £N.Z.40,000,000, leaving a gap of more than £N.Z.90,000,000. He pointed out that excess purchasing power had swamped price controls, and he called for support of the scheme.

Industry and the Services made man-power a problem more quickly than was the case in Australia. (New Zealand has a population of 1,500,000; Australia, 7,000,000.) On November 4 the Minister of Supply told the Manufacturers' Federation that the fighting Services must still have priority in the supply of man-power. At the same time, he admitted that primary and secondary industries needed labour to produce supplies for the Forces and the essential needs of civilians. The Government, he declared, intended to do their utmost to provide essential man-power; because of this, the principle of the 48-hour week would be adopted for war industries. He pointed out that many were already working longer, and steps were being taken for a more even distribution of work.

A month later, on December 2, after several days' unloading of equipment and landing of men, the reception of the United States Expeditionary Force was completed. The commander of one American contingent expressed gratitude for the preparations which had been made by the New Zealand Army: "We are very happy to be associated with them in the defence of the common cause." Among American service men were those who had served with distinction on other fronts. Their reception involved the building of the largest camp ever established in New Zealand. New Zealanders accepted cheerfully any deprivation, realizing that goods were needed for the visiting troops. Supply problems were dealt with from the beginning. An indication of the secrecy surrounding the arrival of the Americans was that the troops themselves were unaware of their destination until the transports left the American coasts. There were many in the Dominion who could not resist pointing out that this happy, friendly invasion, necessitated by the hard realities of war, coincided with the period set aside for the celebration of the 300th anniversary of the discovery of New Zealand by the famous Netherlands navigator, Abel Tasman, and Queen Wilhelmina was specially represented at the celebrations in the capital. Her Majesty's delegate gave the Dominion a facsimile chart of New Zealand drawn by Tasman's chief pilot. The opportunity was taken to emphasize that the British and the Dutch, rivals in centuries of adventures, were now fighting side by side for a common cause.

South Africa lost no time in repairing the losses in men and materials sustained at Tobruk on June 21, 1942, when two brigades of the 2nd Division were trapped. Tobruk was a shock to South Africa. When General Smuts called for 7,000 recruits to form a new armoured division, he gave the watchword "Avenge Tobruk!" The response was instantaneous.

SOUTH AFRICA

On July 1 the Transvaal Chamber of Mines decided to release 1,000 men immediately for active service in response to the Prime Minister's appeal. Man-power committees everywhere investigated the possibility of releases.







EAST AFRICA GOES TO WAR

East Africa Command mobile military propaganda unit (above right) exhibits the monthly pay and rations of a native soldier. On recruitment (left) thumb-prints are taken: this man is destined for the 5th Battn. King's African Rifles (a Kenya Regiment). Others joined the Army Pioneer Corps: above left, lowering an overhauled engine into a Bren carrier. (Below) A native expert in microscopy testing for malaria at a military hospital.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright; Pictorial Press



HOW THE COLONIES HELPED BRITAIN AT WAR SEPTEMBER 1939—DECEMBER 1942

When the entry of Italy, Japan and the United States spread the war throughout the world, the scattered territories of the British Colonial Empire came into their own. In Chapter 228 West Africa's role was dealt with in detail, and in Chapter 229 the part played by Malta, Gibraltar and Cyprus was described. Here Edwin Haward gives a comprehensive review of the magnificent response made by the rest of the Colonies to the demands of total war

From the moment of the declaration of war on Germany by Great Britain, the various territories which comprise the Colonial Empire spontaneously expressed their encouragement and pledged their support, but it was not until France fell, in June 1940, and Japan struck her deadly blow at Allied naval power, in December 1941, that the colonies as a whole felt really in the front line.

With Italy's entry into the war, Gibraltar, Malta and Cyprus assumed their full stature as belligerents. They were no longer merely ports of call on the vital Mediterranean route—important though that was—they were battle zones. When the Italians invaded Somaliland, Kenya was on the border of the conflict. The temporary closing of the Mediterranean gave added importance to the West African colonies and to such ocean "halts" as St. Helena and Ascension Island.

When, 18 months later, the Pacific war opened, Mauritius, Seychelles and Ceylon equally became sectors of the world battlefield.

Though it had been for all the Colonies a time of suspense, when the general feeling was one of exasperation at being "out of it all," those early months had not been wasted. All colonial legislatures having specifically declared their support of the war, defence schemes were put into force and there was a general quickening of effort. In this waiting period, too, began the first stream of voluntary gifts to the Motherland which by the third year of war had reached the impressive total of £30,000,000. Thus the foundation was laid for the magnificent contribution made by the Colonies when the call to direct action came.

'Waiting Period' Was Well Used

As has been indicated, the first colonial area to be brought right into the battleline was the Mediterranean and Africa. It is convenient to begin the survey here, and it would be natural to deal with Malta first. But the heroic efforts and long ordeal of the George Cross island have already been recorded in Chapters 160 and 229.

Admiringly watching Malta, Cyprus (1,000 miles farther east in the Mediterranean) stiffened herself for defence when Germany's drive to the Caucasus, the occupation of Greece and the Axis threat to Suez pointed to imminent danger of attack. Against Malta's area of 91 square miles and population of 269,000, Cyprus sets 3,500 square miles and 380,000 inhabitants. Cypriot troops (Pack Transport) were early in the war—in France in 1940. They also fought in the Libyan campaign of the same year, and later in Greece, where, in the retreat through the Peloponnese, they lost 2,420 men, 2,000 of whom were made prisoners of war. The Cyprus Regiment was formed in 1940. "No efforts humanly possible are being spared either from without or within to perfect our defences and keep us safe from aggression," said the Governor, Sir William Battershill, in July 1942. This local patriotism resulted in the formation of a Home Guard and in the expansion of the forces to well over 20,000 strong. In addition strong reinforcements came from India and Great Britain, so that in the autumn of 1941 the island had the largest garrison in its history. Despite the fact that the Italian naval base at Rhodes was only 230 miles, and Crete, taken by the Germans, only 350 miles away, Cyprus did not get her first serious air raid until June 1941, though the first alert was in June 1940. The months of July and August 1941 brought haphazard raids, but eventually the enemy confined his air operations to reconnaissance flights. Elaborate air-raid defences were constructed and the people of Cyprus made a generous contribution to war funds. With the start of General Alexander's African offensive in the autumn of 1942 Cyprus became keyed up for attack.

ADEN FOLLOWS THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR

A section of the cosmopolitan crowd at Aden, the British base guarding the southern approaches to the Red Sea, assembles to listen to the nightly street broadcast of war news. The loudspeaker was installed on the flat roof of the police station: the shaded studio windows may be seen on the left. It was from Aden that on March 16, 1941, the attack was launched which resulted in the reoccupation of Berbera. *Photo, P.N.A.*





WARRIORS OF THE ROYAL WEST AFRICAN FRONTIER FORCE
Units recruited from the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Gambia went to join the Royal West African Frontier Force, which achieved a great reputation in the East African fighting. Left, a Gold Coast native kisses a bayonet, according to tribal custom, on enlistment. Right, fully trained and equipped men of the Force being taken by lorry to their duty point: note how they squat back to back, their packs serving as supports.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

British Somaliland Invaded

British Somaliland, lying between French Somaliland to the east and Italian Somaliland to the west, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Aden, and bordering Italian-held Ethiopia, was highly exposed to danger when Italy entered the war, and was soon overrun by Italian troops. However, retreating British, African and Indian forces before they were evacuated took heavy toll of the enemy in the autumn of 1940. The invaders attacked on August 4—25,000 strong against forces less than a twelfth of that number. The defence was composed of the 1st Rhodesian Regiment, the 2nd King's African Rifles, the Black Watch, two companies of Punjabis, the Somaliland Camel Corps and the 1st East African Light Battery. For nearly all these men—British, South African, African, Somali and Indian—this was their baptism of fire. The Italian troops—especially the colonials—showed a high standard of courage, but their casualties were enormous owing to the determination of the defenders. Captain E. T. C. Wilson, of the Somaliland Camel Corps, won the twelfth Victoria Cross of the War. In covering the eventual evacuation at Berbera the Black Watch distinguished themselves in holding off the enemy at the point of the bayonet. (See Chapter 168.)

Seven months after the Italians had registered this, their only success in the war, their High Command had to order the evacuation of British Somaliland owing to the rapid overrunning of Italian Somaliland by the East African Force in conjunction with the Allied assaults on Eritrea and Abyssinia. On March 16, 1941, a force from Aden landed at Berbera and reoccupied the capital. A few days later, contact was made with this force by the column advancing from Kenya (see Chapter 163). The Somalis warmly welcomed the returned British officials: "Thank God you are back again!" they said. "We knew you'd come." So this little colony of nearly 60 years' standing in the British Empire, with a population of 345,000 on an area of 68,000 square miles—a country of water-holes, sandy desert and scanty pasturage, had, in less than a year, experienced the ups and downs of war—first invasion and then a joyous reunion which gave strength to the mighty drive against Mussolini's cardboard "empire" in North Africa. Aden, just across the Gulf, indomitable rock of sea communications could thus again look on a friendly Somaliland. In addition, the Hadramut chieftains were relieved to know that their security had been swiftly re-established. This greatly sustained them later when they suffered anxiety for their kinsmen in Java and Malaya.

To this campaign against Italian East Africa, Kenya contributed well. With a European population of 20,000 out of a total of 220,000 (40,000 of them Indians) she raised a Women's Transport Service of 500 to serve with the East African Forces and no less than 650 women were posted as civilian stenographers and clerks in military offices. About 6,500 European women were registered, 2,300 of them were engaged in war work outside their own homes, including 800 engaged in full time farming.

Kenya's next-door neighbour, Uganda (94,000 square miles and 3,800,000 people), celebrated its jubilee in 1943 and in token of the prosperity enjoyed by its people had contributed £372,000 to War Funds by the end of 1942. The King's African Rifles obtained one of its battalions from Uganda, and this unit fought gallantly in the African campaign. Uganda sent many men to the East African Army Service Corps and its Motor Training School turned out a valuable supply of drivers. In addition to Uganda's exports of cotton and production of wolfram, her material contribution to the war effort was substantial. (The colony is the second cotton producer of the Empire—48 million lb. per annum.) Tanganyika and Kenya helped also as producers of cotton.

Gallantry of the K.A.R.

Other colonial forces serving in North Africa were about 30,000 men from Basutoland, Swaziland and Bechuanaland. They were formed into the African Auxiliary Pioneer Corps on the basis of an organization which enabled them to maintain their tribal individuality. The Basutos, accustomed to life in altitudes up to 11,000 ft., were known as the "Highlanders of South Africa." They had played a big part in the construction of the railway to Palestine and Syria. (See Chapter 222.)

Basutoland donated £100,000 to the Ministry of Aircraft Production. The gift was used to provide Spitfires for the R.A.F. and was commemorated in the naming of one squadron the "Basutoland Fighter Squadron," which achieved a remarkable series of victories.

The King's African Rifles specially distinguished themselves at the Juba River. In February 1941 they hacked a road through the dense jungle and so enabled the motorized troops to cut off the enemy's retreat near Gelib. Another force of the same unit—with tanks and armoured cars—captured Modun and took a thousand prisoners. At Mega the K.A.R. released 179 British sailors from a prisoners-of-war camp and won notable victories at Todenyang and Mamaraputh.

Leading up to the final attack on Abyssinia, troops from all the East African dependencies took part. Their success was heralded by the brilliant capture of Mount Pike, for which the King's African Rifles were mainly responsible. But the West Africans must not be forgotten. The Royal West African Frontier Force, composed of



MAN-HANDLING THE GUNS THROUGH THE NEW GUINEA JUNGLE

Men of the A.I.F., veterans of two years' campaigning in Libya, Greece, Crete and Syria, were unanimous in declaring that the fighting in Papua was the most gruelling of their experience. For their untried American comrades it was a brutal introduction to the realities of war. Typical of the rigours of jungle fighting was the effort demanded in moving artillery: above, Australians haul a 25-pounder through a clearing in the jungle. *Photo, Australian Official*



AUSTRALIAN-MANNED AMERICAN TANKS LEAD THE ASSAULT ON BUNA

By the middle of November 1942 the remnants of the Japanese Army commanded by Lieut.-Gen. Tomitaro Horii were finally confined at three points on the north Papuan coast—Gona, Sanananda and Buna. On January 3, 1943, Australian and American troops occupied Buna. American General Stuart tanks, manned by Australians, blasted a way through the coastal forest for the infantry (above). The tanks had been landed in the Cape Endaiadere area (see illus., p. 2460), while the Americans had been borne by air from Port Moresby to reinforce Australians who had crossed the Owen Stanleys. This photograph was taken during the actual fighting. *Photo, Australian Official*



Photo, Australian Official

IN NEW GUINEA THE ALLIES LIVED AND FOUGHT IN WATER AND MUD

Tropical rainstorms, whose violence could stun, shrouded the jungles in impenetrable and sickening vapour and churned the earth into deep bogs of mud. The Allied troops suffered an existence which even the Papuan natives shunned. They lurked in shallow rifle-pits during the day, withered by the sun. When the rains came the pits filled up with water, as at this forward post in the Sanananda area, situated less than 30 yards from the enemy positions.

units recruited from the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Gambia, had arrived in Kenya in the summer of 1940. By the following summer these West African fighting men had won from the High Command this tribute: "In every situation, they have distinguished themselves. Their spirit, their efficiency, their burning patriotism, and their high courage are admired and envied by all."

Typical examples of the heroism of these African troops—whether of the East or West—may be cited. Sgt. Frafra, of the Gold Coast Regiment, won the B.E.M. for risking death to rescue a pilot from a blazing plane loaded with unexploded bombs. Sgt. Odiio, Sgt. Walasi and Cpl. Rabson, of the King's African Rifles, all won the Military Medal in Madagascar for great bravery in the face of heavy machine-gun fire.

African Troops Honoured

On the other side of Africa the temporary loss, in 1940, of the Mediterranean route to India gave special importance to Sierra Leone (28,000 square miles and 1,800,000 people), Nigeria (373,000 square miles and 20 million people), the Gold Coast (24,000 square miles and 1,860,000 people), Ashanti (24,300 square miles and 703,000 people), and the Northern Territories (30,500 square miles and 717,000 people). Freetown, a fine natural harbour, became a veritable ocean junction as ships of all sizes put in there on their journeys to and fro between west and east. Lagos became an important air base for travellers to Egypt and India.

The Nigerian Marine took part in coastal defence, Nigerians served in the R.A.F., and Nigerian troops in the campaign against the Italians in Somaliland, Abyssinia and Eritrea distinguished themselves greatly. The King's African Rifles, the Royal West African Frontier Force and the Northern Rhodesia Regiment were multiplied many times over and were recruited from all the East and West African territories. In the East Africa campaign, by the middle of 1941, nearly 100,000 African troops were serving.

Nigeria's success in the field has been matched by remarkable developments in food production. Rice and maize crops have been increased to make the country independent of imports and actually able to export. Flour milling, butter production, sugar manufacture, and various food-making industries have been expanded, while starch is being manufactured to replace the loss of supplies from the Netherlands East Indies. Nigeria also constructed small naval craft in her extended shipbuilding yards.

The West African territories under a Produce Control Board set themselves to expand the production of cocoa, oilseeds and groundnuts, and in East and West Africa intensification of rubber production was secured. Tanganyika, for example, revived abandoned areas of ceara rubber with the help of former Malayan planters, and quadrupled her former output. The Gold Coast, Sierra Leone and Nigeria helped in the drive for more minerals, such as bauxite, wolfram, tin, graphite, copper, zinc, etc. Mombasa's (Kenya) already fine harbour was enlarged to handle in 1942 2,100,000 tons of cargo as compared with 1,200,000 tons in 1939. Fitly called Kilindini—"the place of deep water"—it sheltered convoys and handled goods and troops. There were many developments in forestry in Tanganyika.

The islands of St. Helena and Ascension off the African Atlantic coast, also, were able to emphasize their communications value in the Empire's time of need. St. Helena found her increased production of hemp to be specially useful to the Allied Nations after the fall of Manila.

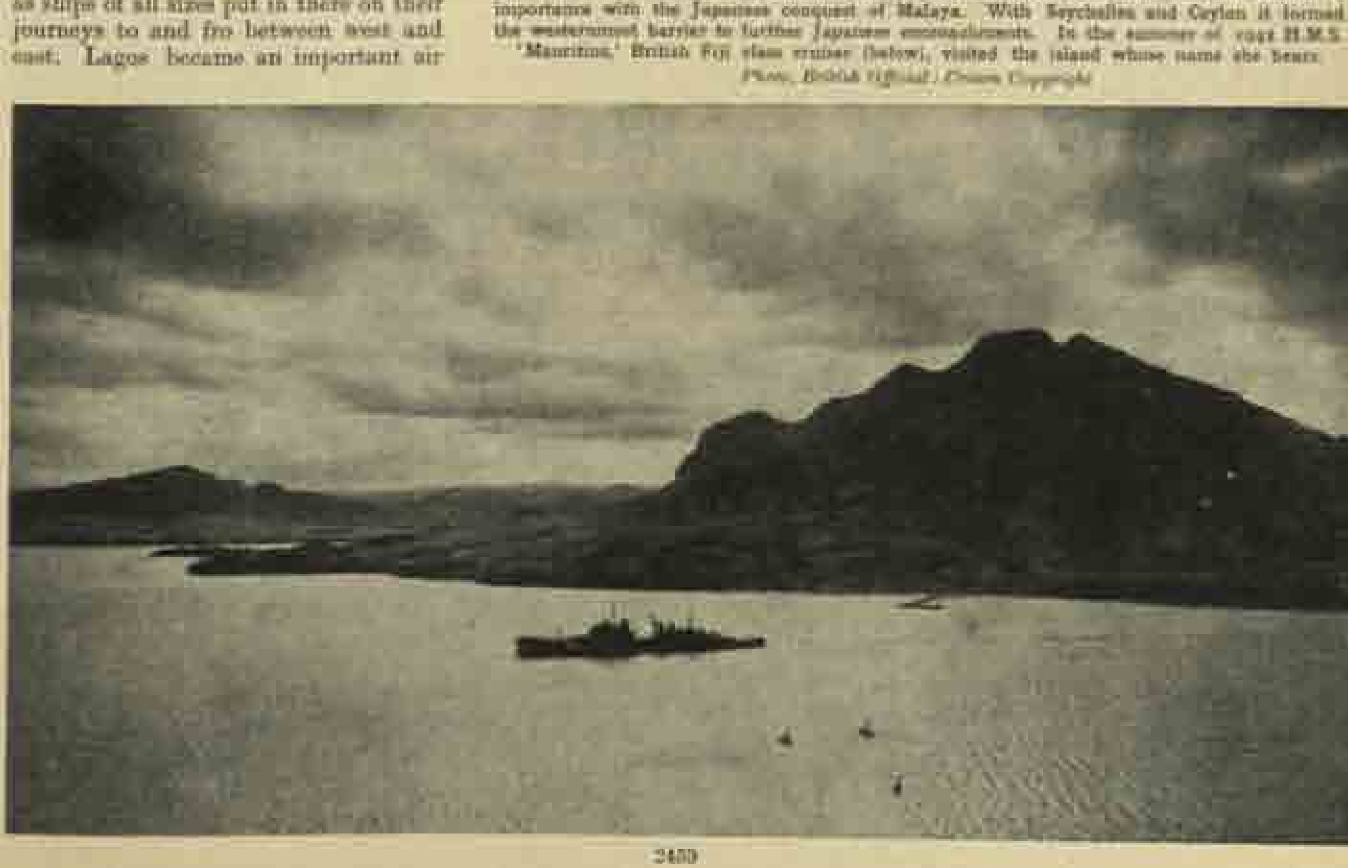
Defence of the West Indies

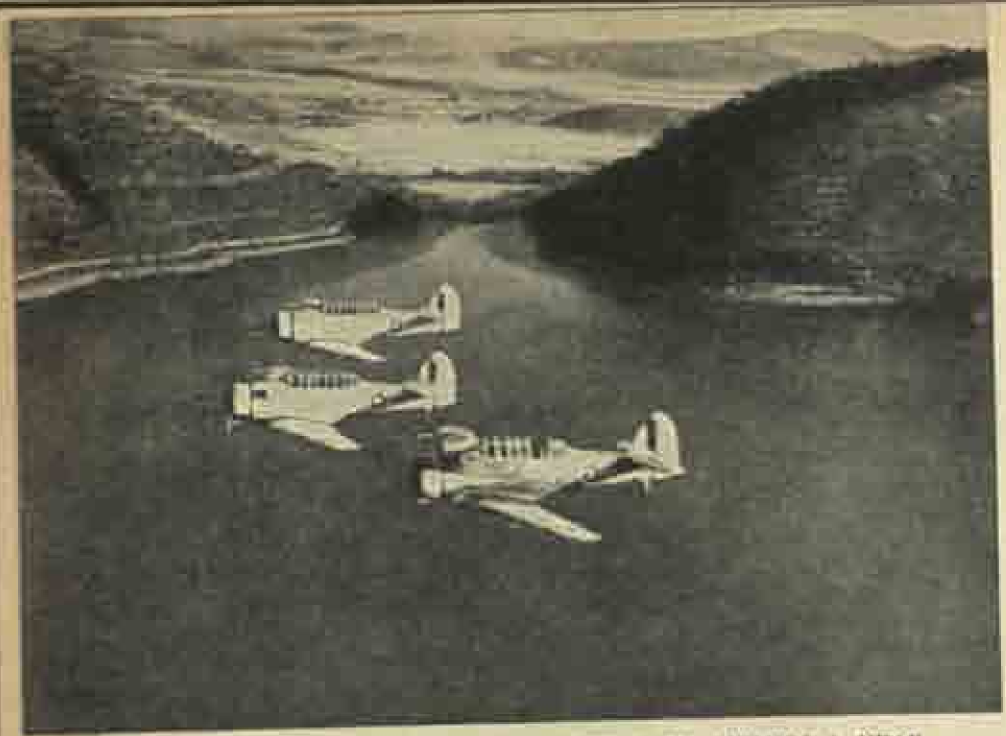
In the West Indies the U.S. Government established bases as part of the Allied campaign against the U-boats, and the islands developed their resources with the object of doing what they could to help the common cause. The defence of the West Indies was made

H.M.S. 'MAURITIUS' VISITS HER NAMESAKE ISLAND

Mauritius, strategic island in the Indian Ocean 550 miles east of Madagascar, held by Britain since 1810 as a vital link in the Southampton-Cape Town-Colombo sea route, assumed enhanced importance with the Japanese conquest of Malaya. With Seychelles and Ceylon it formed the westernmost barrier to further Japanese encroachments. In the summer of 1942 H.M.S. 'Mauritius,' British Fiji class cruiser (below), visited the island whose name she bears.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





SOUTHERN RHODESIA TRAINED 2,000 AIRMEN A YEAR

A notable part of Southern Rhodesia's contribution to the Empire war effort was the establishment of training schools for personnel of the R.A.F. and Dominions' Air Forces. By the middle of 1943 she was turning out 2,000 fully-trained pilots, air gunners and observers annually. Above, in the picturesque setting of the mountain-encircled Mazoe Dam, Cranbourne, Southern Rhodesia, three R.A.F. Harvard II's—advanced training monoplanes—fly in formation.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

stronger by the raising locally of the South Caribbean Force as regular units of the British Army, consisting of detachments stationed in Barbados, Trinidad, the Windward Islands and British Guiana. The force included coastal batteries, anti-aircraft and searchlight troops, infantry and ancillary units. In addition Home Guards were raised in all the islands. Bermuda, with the co-operation of the U.S. forces, organized a comprehensive anti-mosquito campaign—an important factor in the success of the establishment of bases for those forces in the island. In Trinidad, too, American bases were created. This led to an Anglo-American joint effort to improve the fishing industry in the island and the Caribbean generally.

In the Windward Islands Lease-Lend facilities produced diesel engines to develop local shipping industries. The saving of outside shipping space led to the development of a furniture industry in Bermuda and Jamaica; while the latter island successfully used locally produced castor oil in place of kerosine. St. Lucia went forward with bee-keeping and Bermuda revived her canning industry. Far to the south the 3,000 inhabitants of the Falkland Islands gave over £13,000 to war funds. Although several men served with the Royal and Merchant Navies and the R.A.F., the whole man-power was occupied in local defence and had been on active service from the outbreak of war. Falkland Islands sheep farmers helped to meet the United Nations' need for wool—in the five years before 1938 the islands produced 4 million lbs. annually. After Japan's entry into the war Imperial troops arrived to strengthen the islands' defences.

New Industries Developed

Tragic Malaya, exposed to the dangers suddenly unfolded by France's collapse —which gave the Japanese the opportunity to seize naval and air bases in Indo-China in September 1940 and July 1941 and so achieve a point of vantage for launching landward and air attack on Singapore's unguarded rear—had, up till then, been foremost in contributing to the Allied war resources. Huge sales of Malayan foreign exchange facilitated the finance of large exports of rubber and tin to the U.S.A. The Singapore Harbour Board Dockyards built fast patrol launches, minesweepers and anti-submarine craft. The Federated Malay States subscribed £400,000 for aircraft and the Straits Settlements Squadron, which operated so gallantly against the Luftwaffe in Europe, was provided out of the Straits Settlements War Fund amounting to nearly £1,000,000. The Malay Regiment was raised in 1933 and expanded for war purposes to share in the inadequate defence of Malaya against the overwhelming forces of the invading Japanese.

The loss of Malaya's rubber resulted in a magnificent effort by other colonies to repair the deficiency. (See also Chapter 298.) In this achievement, Ceylon, Tanganyika, Fiji, East Africa and the Gold Coast took part. The Cameroons in 1942 reported a production of over 2½ million tons of rubber —or double the pre-war figure, and the Gold Coast organized a collection of wild rubber and scrap. Plantations in British Guiana and Tobago took up the growing of rubber again and the possibilities of its production were explored by Trinidad. In New Guinea the collection of wild rubber in areas outside the zone of operations was attempted. Off the east coast of Africa Mauritius and Seychelles provided valuable points of vantage for meeting the Japanese threat after Pearl Harbour. But to Ceylon fell the honour of making the first stroke in countering Japan's spectacular advance. On April 5, 1942, Japanese planes from aircraft carriers attempted a mass raid on Colombo. Out of 75 planes making the attack, Ceylon's defenders shot down 27. Two days later the Japanese came again at Trincomalee, Ceylon's great anchorage, and lost 37 machines. (See Chapter 223.) The responsibility for Ceylon's defence had been put in the hands of Admiral Sir Geoffrey Layton, formerly Commander-in-Chief Far Eastern Fleet. His knowledge of the Japanese and his leadership galvanized the services in Ceylon with the full

Air Raid on Colombo



FROM BRITISH GUIANA

Diana Williams, of British Guiana, came to Britain to join the A.T.S.: she is here seen retreading tyres at a Midlands depot. She was one of the 2,000 West Indians who by the end of 1943 had crossed the Atlantic—most of them independently and at their own expense—to serve in the three Forces.

Photo, Associated Press

co-operation of the Governor, Sir Andrew Caldecott.

In June 1942 the occupation of the French island of Madagascar by British forces under General Platt further encouraged the outposts of the Indian Ocean. Ceylon in particular had reason to rejoice, as her problems were by no means negligible, apart altogether from the military aspect of the situation. The loss of Burma had deprived India of some 3 million tons of rice normally imported from that country. Restrictions on the export of Indian foodstuffs soon had their effect on Ceylon, the population of which, like the people of Madras, are largely rice-eating. Ceylon had to plan the expansion of her own rice production by putting another 211,000 acres under cultivation with

Ceylon's Food Problem



'SIREN' IN CEYLON

The Cingalese equivalent of the Western siren air raid signal was the village church bell. Above, a native at the ready to give 'Alert,' or 'All Clear,' perched at the top of a belfry of characteristic Oriental design.

Photo, Pictorial Press

the intention of doubling that effort in the future. In December 1941 Civil Defence measures were approved by the Governor. An emergency labour corps was created and evacuation schemes were drawn up. In view of the experience of Hongkong the Commander-in-Chief ordered the evacuation of women and children, most of whom went either to India or to South Africa. Ceylon's defence forces—Ceylon Light Infantry, Ceylon Planters' Rifle Corps, Ceylon Engineers, Ceylon Garrison Artillery, Ceylon Medical Corps, Ceylon Naval Volunteer Force and Ceylon Army Service Corps—were mobilized and shared with regular troops in the defence of the island. The Ceylon Planters' Rifle Corps supplied over 120 cadets for the Indian Army. The people of Ceylon raised about £500,000 for war funds in addition to Government loans.

Like Ceylon, Mauritius' command of sea routes was important. It had a direct bearing on the defence of India, and the island's population of 390,000 included about 270,000 Indians. Mauritius subscribed well to war funds and organized local defence within her limited means. Ceylon and Madagascar effectively prevented Mauritius from being more directly exposed to enemy attack.

After the fall of Hongkong, Malaya and Burma, the position of the Fiji Islands (pop. 220,000) suddenly assumed tense significance. Under the rearrangement of the United Nations' plans to meet the Japanese attack the islands came within the charge of the U.S. commander of the Combined Naval Forces in the Anzac Area—Vice-Adm. Herbert Leary. New Zealand troops were sent to strengthen the islands' defence, while neighbours of Fiji, Caledonia to the south-west and Samoa to the north-east, were garrisoned by American forces.

When Japan seized the bases in New Guinea and the Solomon Islands the lines of sea and air communication between the U.S.A. and New Zealand were in grave peril, but Fiji stood guard over them. Under the leadership of Major Ratu J. L. V. Sukuna, C.B.E., a veteran of the last war, Fijian Commandos were raised and went brilliantly into action against the Japanese in Guadalcanal. The raising of the Fiji Infantry Regiment and its departure for the forward fighting areas and the mobilization of a Home Guard of all races in Fiji (Europeans, Eurasians, Chinese, Solomon Islanders as well as Fijians and Indians) testified to Fiji's fighting spirit. Her war expenditure of £219,900 in 1941 was partly met by taxation yielding £55,000, a testimony to the solidarity of the people's support of the United Nations. The defence force included infantry, artillery and territorial units and also a coast defence battery. The Fiji Naval Volunteer Reserve, manned by Europeans, Indians and Fijians, rendered useful service, and to save shipping the



B.E.M. FOR FIJIAN HERO

Corporal [illegible] Drunia, of the Fiji Labour Corps, was awarded the British Empire Medal for bravery. While he was at the winches of a vessel unloading cargo a heavy motor lorry broke loose and swung wildly. Drunia dodged it each time it passed him and guided it safely into the hold at last. Had the truck dropped while out of control, lives would have been lost among those working below.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

islands made a splendid effort to be self-supporting in foodstuffs.

In contributing to the Allied funds the Colonial Empire proved the accuracy of a Nigerian chief's definition of its attitude: "The British people are our true and tried friends, therefore we must help them." More than £23 million had been subscribed by the people of the Colonies by the end of 1943, apart from loans free of interest coming from the various colonial governments. Ceylon voluntarily gave £750,000 to war funds, Trinidad £300,000, little Antigua—an island in the Leeward group—£4,000, the Falkland Islands £15,000 (roughly £4 per head of the population), and the inhabitants of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands—despite the High Commissioner's warning against over-generous enthusiasm—£12,500. The same story was told everywhere; in addition there were innumerable gifts in kind.

Colonies Subscribed £23,000,000

In sum the Colonial Empire, by dint of the eagerness of all its people, rose to the occasion not merely to provide the sinews of a global war but to do so in a fashion which firmly laid the foundations of economic and social progress when peace should come.



JAPANESE ROUTED AT MILNE BAY

On Aug. 26, 1942, a Japanese force landed at Milne Bay, on the S.E. tip of Papua (see map, page 2463). Reconnaissance planes had sighted the convoy off the Trobriand Islands, and the attack was anticipated. In less than a week the invading force was annihilated by the Australian garrison, commanded by Major-General Cyril A. Clowes (6). At Milne Bay hills fall sheer to the sea in places (1), but there were spots where enemy tanks could be run ashore: two are shown disabled (4). Australians ploughed through typical Papuan mud (2) to stem the advance, the limit of which was marked by a monument (5). An abandoned Japanese landing barge (3) testified to the first big Allied counter-offensive success.











Chapter 249

ALLIED OPERATIONS IN NEW GUINEA, 1942

Chapter 232 surveyed the second phase of the Japanese offensive in the Pacific—the creation of a strategic chain of island strongpoints. Here, in collaboration with official Australian military sources, Miss L. E. Cheesman, the distinguished authority on New Guinea, graphically describes the invasion of that island and the first stage of the successful Allied counter-offensive

On January 20, 1942, a hundred Japanese bombers attacked airfields at Rabaul in the Australian mandated island of New Britain, north-east of New Guinea. A certain number of these aircraft—probably the entire force—came from aircraft carriers. This was the first hostile action against British New Guinea in the Japanese campaign to obtain possession of that island with its archipelagos, in order to form an outer area of defence for their new Pacific empire and to paralyse Australia by a threat of invasion.

Large forces of Japanese aircraft were sighted from various points in the Bismarck Archipelago and off the northern coast of New Guinea on the day following the preliminary air attacks. On January 22 Rabaul radio station sent out its last message that enemy ships had been sighted and the Japanese were preparing to land. They landed next day.

The invasion was by no means unopposed. On January 23 a huge Japanese convoy of reinforcements for

Japanese Landing at Rabaul

the landing at Rabaul was discovered as it was passing through the Macassar Strait, and was practically destroyed after a five-days' battle. Dutch planes and torpedo-boats, the Royal Australian Air Force and U.S. Flying Fortresses and cruisers, kept up a series of attacks. Japanese losses were at least seven warships, with 16 troopships. Six more craft were probably destroyed and ten damaged. Nevertheless, 10,000 Japanese troops landed at Rabaul, by the capture of which the enemy secured an exceptionally fine harbour and several airfields. When fortified, this base became a very strong key position from which to carry out further operations against the mainland of New Guinea.

Deep harbours sheltered from violent squalls, which blow at almost hurricane force, are not very numerous in this area, but Rabaul Harbour, tucked into a corner of Blanche Bay, is an old volcanic crater, capable of holding a fair-sized fleet. The town of Rabaul stands above a good foreshore and before Japanese occupation had a white population of over 15,000. All around are extensive and flourishing coconut plantations served by good roads. There are several airfields. It would have been a herculean task to put such settlements into a state of defence, separated as they are by hundreds of miles of unprotected coast with innumerable inlets, solitary beaches and natural harbours, uninhabited except by Papuan tribes. (Except the few inhabitants of the little islands of Aua and Wuvulu to the north-west of New Guinea, the natives are sturdy, frizzle-haired, brown or coal-black Melanesians and Papuans. The tribes keep themselves to themselves.)



AUSTRALIAN COMMANDERS OF THE NEW GUINEA FORCE

Lt.-General S. F. Rowell, C.B.E. (right), commanded the New Guinea Force from the outset of the campaign until September 1942 when he was succeeded by Maj.-General E. F. Herring, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C., E.D., K.C. (left). General Rowell served in Libya, Greece and Syria, 1941, and was appointed Deputy Chief of General Staff at Army H.Q., Melbourne, at the end of these campaigns. General Herring commanded the 6th Division, A.I.F., during 1941-42. He led the Australian forces which recaptured Kokoda and pursued the enemy across the Owen Stanleys.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Keystone

The Japanese continued to throw in vast numbers of troops undeterred by heavy losses. In the two months following the occupation of Rabaul they

Heavy Enemy Losses

acknowledged the loss of 50 ships and 100 aircraft with 7,000 casualties. Even while consolidating their position on New Britain and driving out the Australian forces—which though out-numbered continued to offer resistance as long as this was possible—the Japanese made landings on the north coast of New Guinea at Lae, Salamaua and Wewak early in March. All three places were subsequently evacuated by the Australians.

New Guinea is 1,300 miles in length—three times the size of the British Isles—but it possesses only about ten small towns or white settlements; there are government stations and also ports



THE JAPANESE THREAT TO AUSTRALIA

With the conquest of Rabaul, within few miles of the Australian continent, and landings on the northern coast of New Guinea, separated from the mainland only by the 100-mile-wide Torres Strait, the Dominion, already menaced from the west through the Celebes, had war brought shockingly close to her. The arrows indicate the anticipated enemy thrusts to crown his Pacific achievements by the over-running of Northern Australia

of call with regular steamer communication, in Dutch Territory with Macassar and Batavia, and in the British Territories with Sydney. There was radio communication between government stations in each individual Territory, but neither mail nor radio intercommunication between Dutch and British Territories. Apart from these civilized spots this great island consists of high mountain ranges covered in lofty forest and large areas of swamp. There is a dense native population.

With the introduction of air transport within comparatively recent years numerous airfields were made in favourable positions along the coast and inland to serve oilfields and goldfields. These groups of airfields in proximity to the most important ports were the first objective of the invaders, who captured one position after another, overwhelming any resistance by sheer numbers, except in the case of Wau airfields in Morobe District, which were successfully held by Australians in spite of incessant attacks.

Airfields the First Objective

Wewak Harbour, which has a good anchorage sheltered behind a small point, became an important Japanese naval and air base. Salamaua, capital of the Mandated Territory, formed another strong strategic position; the valuable airfields of Lae at the mouth of Markham River defended the wide Markham Valley, which was also occupied by the enemy. Markham River (or Wassi) cuts through a low plain in the latter part of its course and flows into Huon Gulf by a wide mouth obscured by islets covered in mangroves, which are also thick on the muddy shores. The valley is fertile and has been extensively cultivated by a German Lutheran Mission, and on level stretches several small airfields were made at different altitudes. The Japanese appear to have considered at one time the possibility of an advance from this point over the central mountain ranges to attack Port Moresby. But devastating floods were caused in the valley by abnormal rains, the project was abandoned and the higher sections of the valley were later evacuated.

Samarai, in the territory of Papua, was also bombed, causing much destruction. This little island, which has been called the Garden of New Guinea, is chiefly the residential area of those who have business in Port Moresby. It is covered with bungalows and gardens with a few wharves and warehouses near the beach.

It was not until the first week in March 1942 that the Japanese landed in force in the Mandated Territory and occupied the Markham Valley. Shortly after, Port Moresby was subjected to frequent air raids. The Allied Air Forces inflicted severe punishment whenever opportunity offered, but were greatly handicapped by the loss of air bases from which to operate, and the long distances involved precluded the continual reconnaissance which was so much needed. In the numerous dog-fights which took place over Port Moresby itself there was abundant evidence of the superiority of the machines and air crews of the Allies. Neither town nor airfields received any very serious damage. Large formations of Japanese aircraft were frequently sent to the attack but were systematically broken up and dispersed, many enemy planes being brought down during such engagements. When the Allied Air Forces had been suitably strengthened and the Japanese had no longer numerical superiority, the menace from air attacks on Port Moresby and towns on the Australian mainland was no longer so serious.



VITAL SUPPLIES SENT BY AIR

The Australians called the Papuan campaign a "Q War"—a quartermaster's war. Supply problems were solved by Lt.-General George Kenney, commanding Allied Air Forces in the S.W. Pacific area, shown below (on right) inspecting the first 105-mm. howitzer to be flown to the front lines. From Douglases and Lockheeds thousands of tons of food and war material were dumped (right) at precipitous sectors.

Photos, Fred Pepper; "New York Times"

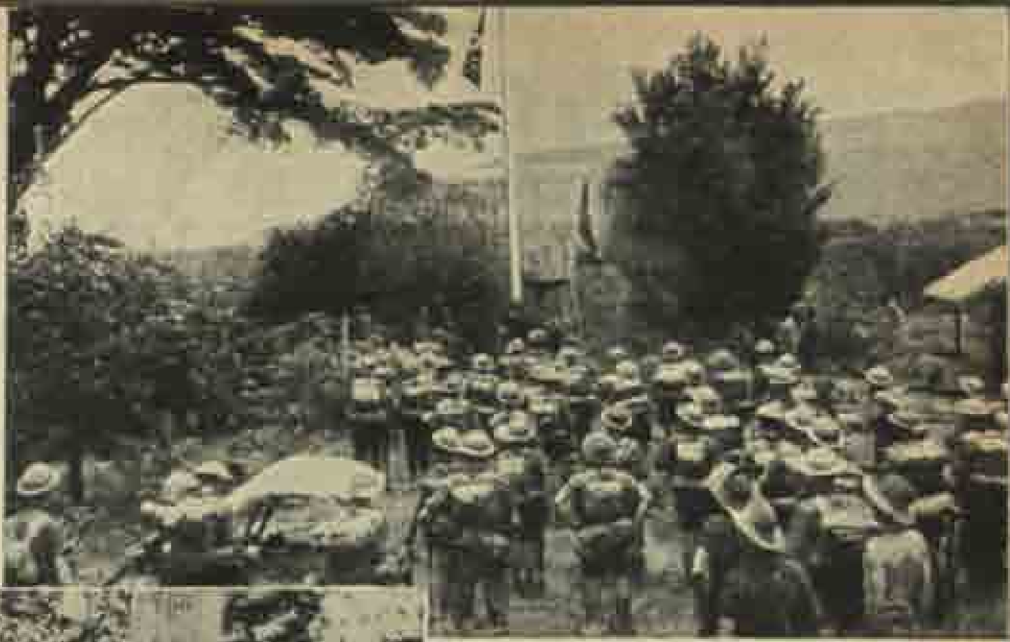


Eventually, in July, the enemy launched a determined overland drive to capture the town. On the 23rd Japanese troopships, escorted by cruisers and destroyers, reached the Buna and Gona anchorages on the north-east coast of Papua and sent myriads of small boats ashore. In special landing barges of steel and wood, in native canoes and in barges made on the spot troops were landed at innumerable little beaches, inlets, and mouths of rivers and creeks. It was estimated

Drive for Port Moresby Launched

later that 15,000 men had been put ashore, with full equipment and anti-aircraft batteries which were set up at once in prearranged positions. With the Japanese force came their Commander-in-Chief, General Tomatore Horii, an expert on landing tactics sent expressly by the Japanese Supreme Command to carry out operations in the south-west Pacific.

Only a small Australian force could be sent to oppose this formidable landing, and this could do no more than effect temporary checks. When the Japanese had crossed the swamp area of the coastal flat, which offers little difficulty at that time of the year,





KOKODA RECAPTURED: NORTHWARDS TO BUNA

Strategic key to the control of the Owen Stanley range, Kokoda village was captured by the Japanese on August 1, 1942, the Allied commander, Lt.-Col. W. T. Owen, being killed in action. When the village and airfield were retaken by the Australians unopposed on November 3 the Dominion flag was ceremoniously raised (above). An Australian signpost erected next to its Japanese counterpart (left) indicated the route to the coast via Oivi.

Photos, Australian Official; Sport & General

they fanned out into the lower forest and adopted the infiltration tactics which had been so successful in Malaya and Burma; and the Australians, after a few patrol skirmishes, were obliged to withdraw along the road to Kokoda in the mountains. Here they received reinforcements flown by transport planes from Port Moresby.

The Buna-Kokoda road was built in 1904 to serve the Yodda goldfield, whence it was continued only as a track over the Owen Stanley Range (which forms the backbone of south-east New Guinea), through a pass known as the Gap (at 6,700 feet) and down to Port Moresby. Kokoda Government Station, opened at the same period, consists of a few official buildings round a square clearing on a ridge above an aerodrome. The Japanese pressed on, following the road, and after an inconclusive engagement fought on Kokoda aerodrome on August 1, in which the commander, Lt.-Col. W. T. Owen, was killed in action, the Australian delaying force withdrew into the higher mountains. From Kokoda the track climbs abruptly, in places merely as a narrow terrace crossing the face of high precipices at a very steep angle. The enemy was held up for a time by the difficulties of this terrain but, led by General Horii *in person*, eventually gained the crests of the Owen Stanleys, found a way through the range by scaling small gullies, and stormed the Gap which the Australians were defending. Again, but for the last time, the Australians were forced to withdraw and on September 10 the Japanese reached the Ioribaiwa Range, less than 40 miles from Port Moresby.

Japanese Occupy Kokoda

By then, Australia had grown extremely anxious, and all who realized the gravity of the situation were dreading from hour to hour to hear the calamitous news that Port Moresby had fallen. But the line of defence on the slopes south of the central ranges held firm and could not be broken. Violent attacks by the Japanese were repulsed, and all attempts to outflank the Australians were frustrated.

The Allies had taken full advantage of the delaying actions fought by the small but gallant Australian land force, which had bought precious time for reinforcements to reach Port Moresby. That force had been given invaluable help by the existing Allied air units, including what General Henry H. Arnold, head of the U.S. Army Air Forces, described in September 1943 as "the greatest demonstration of parachute bombing ever seen." Fragmentation bombs were dropped against front-line enemy infantry and on the lines of communications. The widely scattering fragments forced men and pack animals off the trails, obliging them to be without food and water, and cut aerodromes, supply trains and encampments to pieces.

Allied Bombing Havoc

Australian units were recalled from the North African front, and were transferred straight from the desert fighting into the New Guinea jungles. All suitable aircraft that could be spared from the U.S.A. were dispatched to Port Moresby to strengthen the Allied Air Forces already there, and American troops also arrived.

Both Allied Commanders, General Blamey (Australian Military Forces) and Lieut.-General R. L. Eichelberger (U.S. Army), visited the forward

positions; General MacArthur (C.-in-C. S.W. Pacific), went to Port Moresby in October to confer with the army chiefs in the field. Reinforcements were poured into the town, and at last the Allies were in a position to launch a counter-offensive, on September 29.

Port Moresby, the largest town of New Guinea, would have been invaluable to the enemy even if it did not hold such a strong strategic position, and had it fallen into Japanese hands Australia would have been open to invasion and to air raids on her southern cities.

Japanese Defeat at Milne Bay

An attempted enemy landing at Milne Bay on August 26 had ended in a crushing defeat. This wide inlet at the S.E. tip of New Guinea has low swampy shores favouring invasion by small craft, but the Australians, foreseeing the likelihood of an attack from that direction, had made careful preparations to oppose it. The venture proved costly to the enemy who, although he succeeded in landing tanks, lost heavily in boats and troops. One small party succeeded in establishing itself on the northern shores of the bay, but it was soon annihilated by forces commanded by Maj.-Gen. Cyril Clowes.

It was a fortnight before the Iorabaiwa Range was cleared of the Japanese. This is a small range rising to about 1,000 feet, the highest peak being 2,500 feet. Sections of it had to be attacked separately, the enemy in the trees destroyed, and dug out of the ground where he had well-prepared positions. But when the failure to make a fresh landing on the coast at Milne Bay was realized, no further attempts to outflank the Australian position were made and the main Japanese force withdrew through the Gap, leaving a thousand men to hold the Iorabaiwa Range until death. As these would not yield, they were destroyed; not one prisoner was taken in this engagement.



SUCH WERE THE CONDITIONS ON THE KOKODA TRAIL

From Port Moresby to 'The Gap' in the Owen Stanley mountains, the Australians plodded northwards up a trail that was at times little more than a goat track. Above, men of the A.I.F. ankle-deep in mud: note the abandoned bicycle, slowly submerging. Below, a 25-pounder gun crew hauls its dismantled barrel lashed to a rude sledge. [See also page 2455.]



On the higher slopes around the Gap the forest is very lofty as well as dense. There are thickets of bamboo where a man can scarcely force a way between the stout stems, while overhead are the interlacing crowns of great trees supporting large communities of epiphytic vegetation, and massive curtains of aerial roots, rope-like lianas and tangles of climbing stems. On the ridges and peaks, where heavy clouds rest when it is not actually raining, is the mossy forest where mosses of many kinds clothe the great limbs and trunks and form huge tussocks, four or five feet square. It was in appalling terrain of this kind that the Allied troops had first to locate their enemies before attacking them. A large army could filter through such vegetation undetected; everywhere was ideal cover for snipers.

Four forms of transport were employed between Port Moresby and the battle zone. For some distance from the base lorries could make the journey along a "possible" road, though at times hairpin bends caused bottlenecks and in places there was room only for one-way traffic. Gradually the road became impassable to all but Jeeps, using chains and four-wheel drives. When the jungle proper began, pack animals were brought into use, but as the track wound higher through precipitous gorges and across swift-running mountain streams the trail became gradually so slippery with mud that the supplies had to be transferred from the backs of the animals to the backs of men, and thus they reached the front line.

Transport Problems Solved



PAPUAN BATTLEGROUND: THE BUNA-KOKODA ROAD

On July 23, 1942, Japanese forces landed at Gona, and on Aug. 1 occupied Kokoda. The Japanese drive was halted at Ioribaiwa, and the enemy withdrawal on Sept. 25 began. Kokoda was recaptured on Nov. 3 and the last Japanese remnants wiped out at Gona (Dec. 9), Buna (Jan. 3, 1943), and Sanananda Point (Jan. 19). (See also map, p. 2471.)



Cpl. JOHN A. FRENCH, V.C. (Australian Military Forces)

Single-handed he silenced three enemy gun-positions in succession—the first two with grenades, the third with a tommy-gun—at Milne Bay on September 4, 1942. Posthumously decorated.



Pte. B. S. KINGSBURY, V.C. (Australian Military Forces)

When his battalion was in danger of encirclement during the Isurava fighting on August 29, 1942, he cleared a path for them with a Bren-gun, thus saving the situation. Posthumously decorated.

Photos, Associated Press; Planet News

Besides the armies of native carriers, arms and other supplies were dropped by plane. The Australian 25-pounders were thus supplemented even by 105-mm. American howitzers, flown 1,500 miles from Australia in Flying Fortresses. As these guns weighed 5,000 lb. apiece they had to be dismantled into a dozen sections before loading, man-handled through the jungle to the front line and there reassembled. Every crate of food and munitions, every gun—whether intact or dismantled—had to be hauled up incredible gradients and through, at times, impenetrable scrub to the point where it could be used most effectively. Each man carried something like 17 lb. of assorted equipment over and above his normal service requirements, a total load of about 50 lb. This, in tropical heat, and in a country made for explorers and naturalists, but never for soldiers, called for a standard of endurance till then without parallel in the war. It is obvious that at first the Japanese, with longer training in bush warfare, had all the advantage, but later the Allies learned to beat them at their own game.

The Japanese life-line to Buna was subjected to a continuous air assault directed by Maj.-Gen. George Kenney, C.-in-C. Allied Air Forces in the S.W. Pacific. Transport was obliged to keep to the main tracks and so provided targets





HOW SUPPLY LINES WERE KEPT OPEN IN PAPUA

Varied and ingenious were the methods employed by the Allies in maintaining the supply lines. Dropped by planes at planned points, the guns, ammunition, food, medical supplies, etc., were parcelled in lots for transport along the trail. Above, the 'Pony Express' makes its way through the jungle. Right, Papuan carriers about to cross a stream. Below, the 'Flying Fox' slung across the Kumusi River by Australian engineers. (See description in p. 2471.)

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Sport & General





INFANTRY FOLLOWED PATH CLEARED BY GENERAL STUART TANKS

Australian-manned General Stuart tanks, forging through the coastal scrub, coconut plantations and kunai grass ahead of the infantry, expedited the mopping up of the Japanese, materially lowering casualties. They first went into action on December 18, 1942. After being landed at Cape Endaiadere, where there was an extensive coconut grove (above), the tanks were given a rapid overhaul prior to battle. Below, the infantry following up in the attack on Buna: note mortar being fired in the background, and general damage done to trees, evidence of the bitterness of the fighting.

Photos, Associated Press; Sport & General



for the R.A.A.F. Kittyhawks, which made daring attacks from tree-top level, although greatly hampered by the layers of white cloud that, except for short periods of good visibility, blot out sections of the forest from view.

On the precipitous north-east slopes beyond the Gap there was stubborn fighting. Although by then the Allies were in a more advantageous position, being above the enemy, yet it was difficult to dislodge him, and frequent bayonet attacks had to be made on the narrow roads. Native villages had been built at different altitudes on these slopes, and battles raged on their sites. Ororri, just below the Gap, was captured at the end of October, and when the village of Isurava was cleared of Japanese in the following week, they had no option but to withdraw to Kokoda where, for the second time, a battle was fought for the station and aerodrome. The Japanese had made no use of the airfield while they occupied Kokoda. It is considered that they had not the suitable aircraft or that their pilots were not skilled in landing upon a small runway among mountain tops enveloped in cloud for the greater part of the day. But when it was recaptured the Allies found it a most important advantage: stores and munitions were landed there, even jeeps were flown over the range from Port Moresby.

With Kokoda in Allied hands, there began the strenuous advance northwards, pushing the invaders back towards their Buna base. By then the weather was changing to an intermediate period of instability between the two monsoons. At such times the wind may veer round to the opposite quarter frequently throughout the day, and violent thunder-storms with torrential rain are of daily occurrence. Weather conditions had greatly impeded the fighting on the northern slopes, and rain and wind were often mentioned in reports. By the time the Allies had driven the enemy half-way to Buna from Kokoda and were nearing the coastal flat it was the end of November and the north-west monsoon had set in.

In some of the native villages on the road to Buna the Japanese entrenched





LAST PHASE: SANANANDA

The Papuan campaign ended at Sanananda on January 19, 1943. Right, native stretcher-bearers carry a casualty to an advanced dressing station. Below, a 'digger' cautiously approaches a Japanese landing barge derelict on Sanananda beach.

Drawing by Roy Hodgkinson, Official Australian War Artist; Photo, Australian Official



WHERE THE BATTLE OF THE OWEN STANLEYS ENDED

From Gona through Kokoda to Ioribaiwa—and back again. That is the summary of the Japanese fortunes from July 23 to December 9, 1942. Australian and U.S. forces joined up at Soputa, and on the north Papuan coastal strip shown above the final fighting took place.

themselves and attempted to hold up the Allied advance. A vigorous engagement took place at Oivi, where the road crosses a gulch hollowed out by Oivi creek, a swift stream in a narrow rocky bed; the hills above were held by the enemy for ten days before they could be dislodged.

To achieve the capture of Oivi it was necessary to make an encircling movement around the Japanese left flank, against the village of Gorari some five miles eastwards. Here two villages had to be surrounded, the Japanese resisting strongly, and after the defences had fallen, over 500 enemy dead were counted.

Crossing of the Kumusi

At Wiropa little resistance was encountered. This name is actually pidgin-English for "wire-rope" and designates the bridge over the Kumusi river, whose swift, broad current, which at that place has not long left the mountains where it rises, is a formidable obstacle on the road. Here the native design of swinging-bridge, made of lawyer-cane, had been carried out very successfully in the strongest fence wire by the Australian Government; as this swung clear of floods, supported by strong struts on either bank, it provided a safe crossing in any season. During the months succeeding the Japanese occupation of the Kokoda road, this bridge was destroyed by Allied air attacks, for the Japanese were making use of the Kumusi river for transport. They had cleared the bed in the lower half, where it traverses mud flats and swamps, and brought up barges from the mouth, north of Gona. Several temporary bridges built by the Japanese were also destroyed from the air.

Between November and February the Kumusi is flooded, and crossing even the lower reaches is both difficult and dangerous. It was in this river that the Japanese commander, General Horii, was drowned when his boat overturned as he was attempting to cross. The incident was reported by Papuans. The Japanese attempted to deny it, but could not conceal the ceremonies of his funeral from the natives, when after cremation the ashes were consigned to a casket to be sent to Japan. All details were passed on to the Allies, who knew that some important personage must have died, and later the Japanese admitted the loss. When Wiropa had been regained by the Australians on their forward march the Kumusi was crossed by a rope and pulley bridge, known as a "flying fox." (*See* illus., p. 2468.)

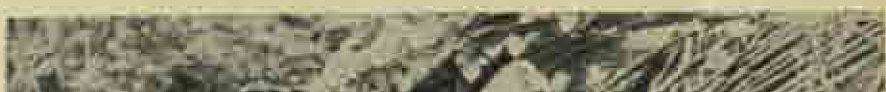
The Australian troops then pushed on towards Buna with all speed and soon after linked up with American forces, who had been flown to Wanigela and Pongani from Port Moresby and were pushing north-west along the coastal strip. The junction of the Australian and American forces was effected near Soputa, about 8-10 miles from Buna.

Then the fighting entered the last phase and the most severe battle of the whole campaign took place on the coastal flat in the district of Buna. Grassland, swamp and secondary forest succeed one another in this area, after Ambago has been passed. Grey stretches of mud are intersected by slow, winding creeks among characteristic swamp vegetation, mangroves, large ferns, and palms which are rooted in pools of liquid mud, the home of swarms of mosquitoes.

Nature of the Coastal Terrain

To pass through swamps in the wet season, good local native guides are needed, and even they are often at fault. The track, which is seldom distinct, may peter out altogether, and the mud may be over the ankles or many feet deep. Sometimes the only possibility of advancing is by walking on the tough aerial roots of mangroves. In sharp contrast to the sour, water-logged swamps are dry stretches of grassland side by side with mangrove forest, covered by tall grasses and fine bamboos. Nearer the coast are extensive coconut plantations between belts of forest.

The Japanese had held this locality for the greater part of six months, and obviously intended it as an important link in their chain of bases for the



AUSTRALIAN AND AMERICAN COMMANDERS IN NEW GUINEA

General Sir Thomas A. Blamey, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O. (left), C.-in-C. Allied Land Forces in the S.W. Pacific from March 1942, following his return to Australia with part of the A.I.F. from the Middle East, is seen here with the American commander, Lt.-General R. L. Eichelberger, at the entrance to a Japanese pillbox in Papua. By the middle of November 1942 both were in front-line H.Q., personally directing the complicated final stages of the campaign.

Photo, Australian Official





KOKODA-OIVI CASUALTIES

Above, men wounded in the Kokoda fighting file to the rear for attention. Below, Oivi casualties stretched out on simple cots in a jungle "hospital." In January 1944 it was revealed that disease accounted for 75 per cent of all casualties in the Pacific. Supplies of mepacrine, British substitute for quinine—one of the main sources of which was Japanese-occupied Burma—were not available in adequate quantity until 1944.

Photos, Associated Press; Paul Popper

invasion of Australia. They had strongly fortified a strip of coast nine miles long and four to five miles in depth; the ground had been mined and every yard of it utilized for defence works. Elaborate underground trenches, reinforced by logs, were connected to form a network of galleries. There were traps of every conceivable variety protected by cunningly concealed snipers' posts; hedgehog positions, pillboxes and well-built gun emplacements in every favourable position in thickets and tree clumps.

Foot by foot, and under the worst climatic conditions imaginable, on flooded ground, in mud and slime, very severe fighting was carried on without respite between November 1942 and February 1943—the hottest season of the year, as well as the wettest. Rain may fall continuously for days, and storms are so violent that the sheer weight of water falling on the heads of those exposed to them for any length of time causes headache and exhaustion. Excessive humidity adds greatly to discomforts occasioned by the climate; the point of saturation reached at Buna

during December is 91 degrees, and this is sometimes higher for a few days.

In ordinary conditions this climate is peculiarly trying; what the Allied forces suffered when compelled to *fight* in these steamy jungles baffles description. Their endurance and courage, together with their skill and ingenuity in outwitting a super-cunning enemy, is beyond all praise.

Throughout December the fighting was extremely bitter, the greater part of it being at close quarters with bayonet and tommy-gun, gaining one enemy post at a time or perhaps clearing a few yards. Often it was necessary for individual soldiers, exposed to mosquitoes and leeches and bathed in perspiration without even the temporary relief of a strong breeze to dispel the heavy atmosphere, to remain several days without movement—except at night and even then great caution had to be used—in order to watch for the chance betrayal of some Japanese position.

Many casualties were due to malaria and dysentry, diseases unavoidable in such strenuous warfare in that vicious climate;

Disease Took Heavy Toll

but by the time the heaviest fighting was in progress, in dense bush on low ground and in the worst season of the year, means of ameliorating the awful conditions had been made possible. Medical treatment was given in field hospitals established behind the lines, and a rest-camp of leaf-thatched huts for less serious cases was set up in the forest, so that as many of the sick as possible had a chance of recovery before their condition became critical. Serious cases were flown direct back to Port Moresby in American transport planes fitted with stretchers for the return journey, after bringing supplies to the fighting zone.

A most interesting factor in the campaign was the attitude of the Papuan tribes which, with very few exceptions, gave spontaneous and whole-hearted co-operation to the Allies. The regular Papuan constabulary had volunteered for active service directly they knew that Britain was at war, and when the Japanese invaded their country units of the Papuan police were formed under white officers for patrol work. These operated with marked success, and on one important river patrol 500 Japanese were killed. In addition, the natives gave valuable help by transporting supplies and munitions, collecting stores dropped from aeroplanes into the forest by parachute, and by acting as stretcher bearers. During the first week of Jan. 1943 a combined Australian and American force commenced to operate towards the sea and drove a wedge to the beach, capturing Buna Government Station on the 3rd and continuing towards Giropa Point, where they gained air strips. This was the first success in a three-pronged drive destined to split up the Japanese defences into isolated sections which were dealt with piecemeal. An American prong cut through to the shore between Giruwa and Tarakena; while Australians attacked the strongly held Japanese beachhead of Sanananda Point, by-passing Cape Killerton and Wye Point, which they disposed of later (See map, p. 2471). Sanananda Point fell on January 16 and Sanananda village three days later, which isolated another Japanese centre between these two localities. A few pockets of resistance remained, but these were wiped out in the following week. Reports on the Japanese prisoners taken in that area show that they were all exceedingly emaciated, having been completely cut off from reinforcements and supplies.



CHECKING THE COMMUNICATION LINES NEAR BUNA

Natural telephone poles were provided by the characteristic palm trees of New Guinea. Here an American soldier carefully checks the vital telephone wires at an important communications "junction."

Photo, Sport & General

In the course of this severe fighting the Japanese made many attempts to land reinforcements, but all were frustrated by the Allied Air Forces which sank all enemy craft that appeared in those waters. Australian-built Wirraways were used for reconnaissance and proved especially efficacious in locating Japanese gun positions. A significant indication that the Japanese Air Force had been greatly weakened is the fact that Allied transport on the Buna track was not subjected to air attack, although large convoys of native carriers passed fearlessly along it in sufficient numbers to be an easy target, especially where the track crossed grassland. But frequent Allied air attacks on Rabaul Harbour during these months had resulted not only in the destruction of much Japanese shipping but in heavy losses in Japanese aircraft.

Meanwhile, the third prong of the Allied drive, an Australian force, had cut through to the coast at Gona and turned east following the beach. When these wedges had been stabilized, flanking attacks

Tanks Used in the Last Phase

produced very satisfactory results, for the enemy had made the same mistake that lost Singapore to the United Nations—all their defences were facing one way. Since they considered that no naval attacks had to be feared, the Japanese had sited their defence positions to face inland only. On Cape Endaiadere, which is planted with coconuts, the Japanese were surprised by a dawn attack carried out with tanks. The Australians had landed General Stuart tanks armed with 37-mm. guns, on the coast further south-east, and these had been brought through the forest and were used with some effect although limited by the small areas of cleared ground on which they could operate.

By the end of January 1943, after eight weeks of the most arduous and bitter fighting, only few pockets of Japanese resistance survived. The Allied Forces had surrounded the entire enemy-held area by these three main drives; Gona and Buna had fallen, Sanananda Point was nearly cleared of the Japanese, and there was but one remaining position at the mouth of Kumusi River. Port Moresby had been saved and the immediate menace to Australia removed. Thenceforward the battle zone shifted westwards to the Mandated Territory.

Diary of the War

SEPTEMBER and OCTOBER 1942

Sept. 1, 1942. Greater part of British troops withdraw from Ethiopia. Germans reach Black Sea and claim capture of Anapa. Axis troops from Crimea land in Taman peninsula. Heavy R.A.F. raid on Saarbrucken. Togo, Japanese Foreign Minister, resigns; succeeded by Tojo.

Sept. 2. Eighth Army in heavy fighting between Ruweisat and El Himeimat. R.A.F. use 8,000 lb. bombs for first time in Dusseldorf raid.

Sept. 4. Russians bomb Budapest, Vienna, Breslau and Koenigsberg. R.A.F. lose 11 machines in Bremen raid.

Sept. 5. Germans claim capture of Novorossisk.

Sept. 8. American troops take over bases in Santa Elena peninsula and Galapagos Islands; Japanese advance from Kokoda into Owen Stanley range.

Sept. 10. Allied operations resumed in Madagascar. Japanese reported to have outflanked Australians in Papua and crossed Owen Stanley range; fighting in progress about 50 miles from Port Moresby. Heavy R.A.F. raid on Dusseldorf; 31 aircraft lost.

Sept. 12. Allied convoys to and from Russia meet with fierce Axis attacks, spread over several days. Forty enemy aircraft destroyed, two U-boats sunk and four others seriously damaged. Out of 75 escorting warships we lost the destroyer H.M.S. "Somali" and the minesweeper H.M.S. "Leda," and four naval fighter aircraft. Germans make slight progress at Stalingrad, with heavy losses. Japanese checked in Papua.

Sept. 13. British mobile desert patrols damage bases and aerodromes at Benghazi and Barce. Enemy installations destroyed in night raid by combined forces on Tobruk. Two British warships lost, H.M.S. "Sikh" and "Zulu." R.A.F. make 100th raid on Bremen, losing 19 machines.

Sept. 15. Eighth Army patrols attack Jalo oasis, destroying stores. Canadian official report on Dieppe raid gives casualties as 3,350 out of 5,000 troops employed. Japanese reach Ioribaiwa, only 32 miles from Port Moresby.

Sept. 16. Governor-General of Madagascar asks for armistice. Fighting on out-skirts of Stalingrad. Ruhr heavily raided again; 39 aircraft lost.

Sept. 17. Madagascar armistice terms rejected. Quisling introduces death penalty in Norway. Masayuki Tani becomes Japanese Foreign Minister.

Sept. 18. Allied forces land on east coast of Madagascar and occupy Tamatave.

Sept. 23. British forces in Madagascar enter Antananarivo. Russians launch counter-offensive N.W. of Stalingrad. R.A.F. lose 10 aircraft over Flensburg.

Sept. 24. French sovereignty proclaimed in Madagascar, with temporary Allied military jurisdiction.

Sept. 25. R.A.F. daylight raid on Oslo.

Sept. 28. Reported that U.S. air forces in Solomon Islands destroyed 42 Japanese aircraft in three days without loss. British submarine H.M.S. "Thorn" considered lost.

Sept. 29. Russians advance between Don and Volga; cross Volga in Rzhev sector and recapture 25 villages. Australians resume offensive in New Guinea and advance to Nauro.

Sept. 30. More British landings in Madagascar, at Tulear and Fort Dauphin. Argentine Parliament demands severance of diplomatic relations with Axis. Japanese begin withdrawal from Ioribaiwa.

Oct. 1. Eighth Army capture positions at Deir el Munassib. Germany annexes North Slovenia. Heavy R.A.F. raid on Flensburg; 17 aircraft missing.

Oct. 2. Heavy R.A.F. attack on Krefeld, with loss of seven aircraft.

Oct. 4. Combined operations raid on Sark and number of prisoners taken. Australians occupy Efogi, Kagi, and Myola, New Guinea. U.S. Navy attack Japanese reinforcements in Guadalcanal.

Oct. 5. G.O.C.-in-Chief East Africa reports all main rail systems in Madagascar in Allied hands. U.S. naval aircraft continue attacks on Japanese reinforcements off Guadalcanal, sinking a destroyer and damaging two other warships.

Oct. 7. Germany threatens to put British prisoners captured at Dieppe in chains as "reprisal" for alleged binding of Germans taken at Dieppe and Sark. Britain and America to set up United Nations Commission to investigate war crimes. Japanese abandon two Aleutian Islands. Heavy R.A.F. raid on Osnabrück; 10 aircraft missing.

Oct. 8. Britain warns Germany that if threat to chain prisoners is carried out similar number of German prisoners will be manacled and chained.

Oct. 9. Germany threatens to fetter three times the number of prisoners similarly treated by Britain.

Oct. 10. Heavy air and artillery attack on Stalingrad. Loss of British cruiser, H.M.S. "*Coventry*" announced.

Oct. 11. Three Japanese cruisers and five destroyers sunk by U.S. fleet off Solomon Islands. U.S. Marines land on north coast of Guadalcanal.

Oct. 12. U.S. Navy Department announce loss of heavy cruisers, U.S.S. "Quincey," "Vincennes" and "Astoria" on August 9 off the Solomons.

Oct. 13. Mr. Churchill states that if chaining of prisoners is stopped, our counter-measures will be withdrawn. American positions in Guadalcanal bombarded by Japanese warships and attacked from air; 14 Japanese aircraft destroyed. Field-Marshal Smuts arrives in England.

Oct. 14. Five more Japanese ships sunk by U.S. submarines in Far Eastern waters.

Oct. 15. Germans launch new attacks against Stalingrad. Fresh Japanese reinforcements land in Guadalcanal; Australians carry fighting into Templeton's Crossing area of New Guinea. Heavy air raids on Malta. Rhineland raided by R.A.F.; 18 machines missing.

Oct. 17. Three Axis supply ships sunk by our submarines in Mediterranean; 94 Lancaster bombers wreck Schneider arms works at Le Creusot in daylight, lose 1.

Oct. 21. Flying Fortresses, with Allied fighters, attack German submarine base at Lorient and Maupertus aerodrome. Field-Marshal Smuts addresses both Houses of Parliament. Announced that King George V class battleships H.M.S. "Anson" and "Howe" now at sea.

Oct. 22. German attacks on Stalingrad repulsed. Australians reach Kora, New Guinea; Allied troops land on Goodenough Island, off the Papuan coast; Japanese troops withdraw. British submarines sink four Axis supply ships in Mediterranean. Heavy R.A.F. raid on Genoa.

Oct. 23. Eighth Army open offensive in Egypt and pierce Rommel's main positions. Navy raid Mersa Matruh. Australian bombers sink 11 Japanese ships in Rabaul harbour. R.A.F. raid Genoa, Savona and Turin.

Oct. 24. Russians make further progress at Stalingrad. Japanese full-scale attack on Guadalcanal repulsed. R.A.F. daylight raid on Milan.

Oct. 25. Eighth Army extend attack and hold new positions. Heavy fighting at Guadalcanal; two Japanese destroyers sunk off the Solomons. Rabaul harbour again attacked by Australian bombers. U.S. bombers attack Hongkong; Japanese aircraft bomb Chittagong and aerodromes in Assam. Twelve Axis ships sunk in Mediterranean.

Oct. 26. Big navy-air battle off Stewart-Santa Cruz (Solomon) Islands; Japanese losses including 100 aircraft and two battleships and three cruisers damaged. U.S. lose destroyer, U.S.S. "Portal," and one aircraft carrier.

Oct. 27. Fierce enemy attacks on Eighth Army positions fail; Allied bombers attack Crete aerodrome.

Oct. 29. More Eighth Army gains; Rommel's forces fight intense rearguard actions. Germans claim Nalchik.

Oct. 30. East African troops enter Fianarantsoa, Madagascar.

Oct. 31. Australians isolate Rommel's positions at Sidi Abd el Rahman, and beat off heavy counter-attacks. Allied troops reach Alola, 11 miles west of Kokoda, New Guinea. Canterbury bombed, 13 German aircraft destroyed.



MARINES TAKE FULL ADVANTAGE OF JUNGLE COVER ON GUADALCANAL

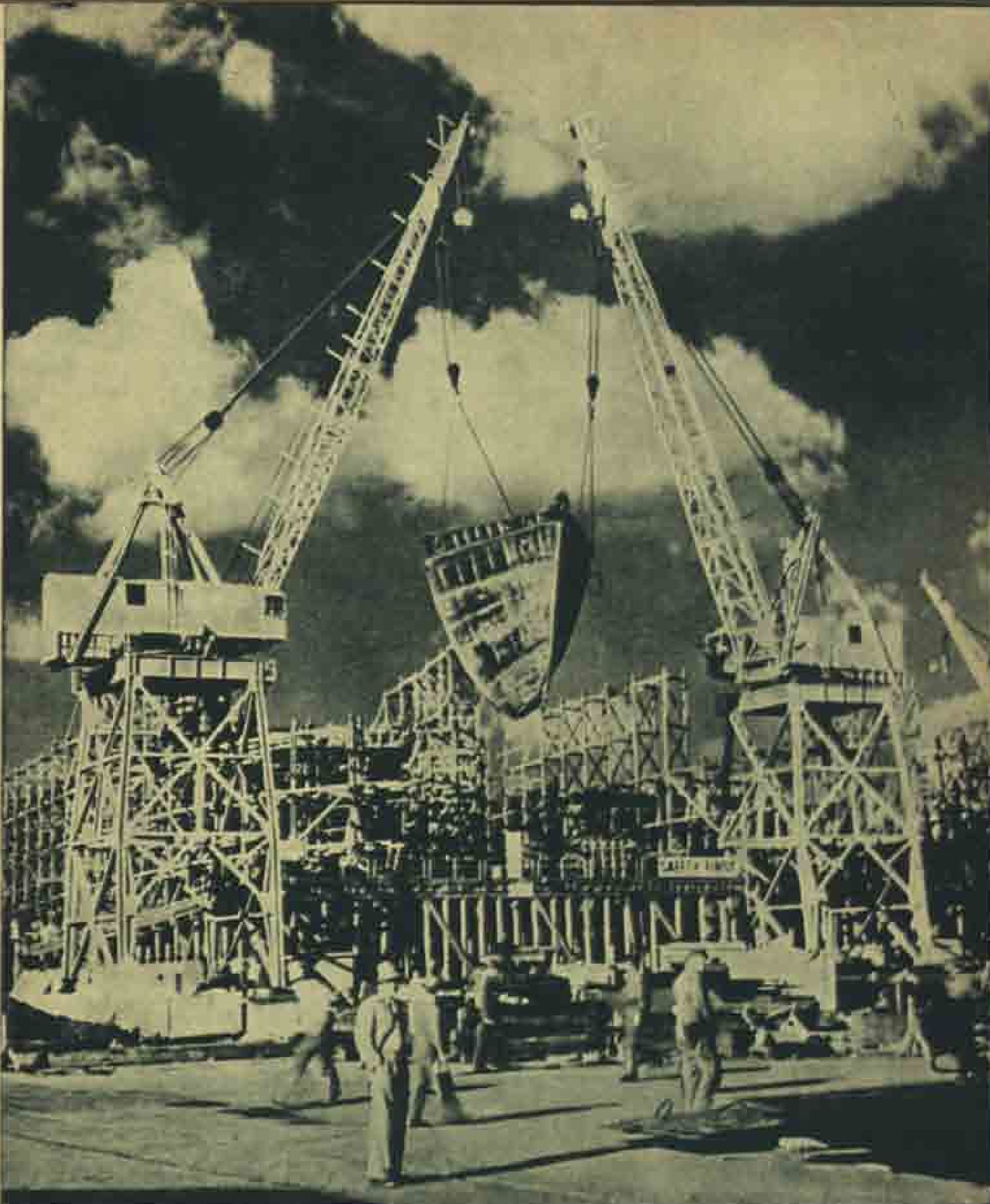
As in New Guinea, dense jungle extended over much of the battle area in Guadalcanal. The opposing forces could never be certain that the enemy was beyond point-blank range; both sides profited and suffered from the natural camouflage. Above, U.S. Marines, clad in green overalls which blended well with the foliage, advance through heavy jungle west of the Matanikau River, scene of strenuous fighting during October 1942.

Photo, U.S. Marine Corps



GUADALCANAL: THE SPOT THEY CALLED 'HELL'S CORNER'

Men of the U.S. 1st and 5th Marines who landed on Guadalcanal on August 7, 1942, met with insignificant resistance. The Japanese, taken by surprise, abandoned Henderson Airfield and retreated across the Matanikau River to await reinforcements. In the next six months they mounted four mighty counter-offensives. 'Hell's Corner' (above) was the scene of some of the most savage fighting of the whole campaign. Marines squat in a jungle nest while a U.S. Navy reconnaissance bomber patrols watchfully overhead. *Photo, Keystone*



PREFABRICATION OF 'LIBERTY' SHIPS MADE SHIPBUILDING HISTORY

'Liberty' ships—American-built cargo vessels designed to meet war-time emergency conditions—were little more than a name in the First Great War: not one was delivered until after the Armistice. The first Liberty ship of this war was launched on October 21, 1941. During 1942 new construction exceeded 8,000,000 tons. Prefabrication largely made this possible: here the entire fore-peak of a Liberty ship's bow, prefabricated, is being hoisted into place in a shipyard at Wilmington, California.

Photo, Associated Press



BRILLIANT SOVIET RECONNAISSANCE IN BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

So efficient was the work of the Red Army reconnaissance units that commanders of the Soviet forces were equipped with battle maps charting the enemy dispositions more accurately than even the German High Command maps. Typical Russian fact-finders are these scouts on the Middle Don, employing a tree as an observation post. Their white hoods and coats render them practically invisible against the winter battleground. *Photo, Planet News*

AMERICAN OPERATIONS ON GUADALCANAL AUGUST 7, 1942–FEBRUARY 10, 1943

In August 1942 the United States attacked in the South Pacific, their first objective being the strategically important island of Guadalcanal in the S.E. Solomons. This authoritative, first-hand account by Capt. Herbert L. Merillat, U.S. Marine Corps, describes the prolonged and bitter struggle which resulted in a crushing defeat for the Japanese. Full details of the U.S. Army's share in the fighting are not available. Concurrent naval and air activities which influenced the campaign are dealt with in Chapters 241 and 254

On the morning of August 7, 1942, more than 15,000 United States Marines of the 1st Marine Division (Reinforced), commanded by Major-General Alexander Archer Vandegrift, landed on the Japanese-held islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, and Gavutu in the south-eastern Solomon Islands in the first offensive undertaken by the United Nations in the Pacific.

Since the Pacific war had opened with the Japanese attack on the United States stronghold of Pearl Harbour, the enemy had enjoyed a series of triumphs broken only by naval defeats in the Battle of the Coral Sea (May 4-8, 1942) and the Battle of Midway (June 3-6, 1942). (*See* Chapter 209.) The Philippines, Hongkong, Malaya, Singapore, Burma, the Netherlands East Indies had fallen to the Japanese forces. The threat to Australia and to the line of communications between the United States and the South Pacific bases was most serious, and Guadalcanal, where the Japanese had been feverishly building an airfield during the month of July, was intended to become a jumping-off point for further attacks to the south.

The naval victories in the Coral Sea and at Midway had cleared the way for a limited offensive to check the Japanese advance into the South Pacific. Guadalcanal became the front line.

Attack Was a Surprise

Racing against time, a combined task force of United States and Australian naval vessels, including battleships, aircraft carriers, cruisers and destroyers, with transports and supply ships, moved through the Coral Sea early in August to attack and seize the Japanese-built airfield before it was stocked with planes.

The enemy never sighted the approaching task force and the assault came as a complete surprise. Shortly before dawn our cruisers and destroyers opened a bombardment of the airfield area on Guadalcanal and the vicinity of the beach six miles east of the runway which had been chosen as the landing point. Dive-bombers and fighters from our aircraft carriers bombed and strafed the same area. Simultaneously our ships and planes were shelling and bombing the little islands of Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo, 20 miles north of Guadalcanal. These islands lie as a protective screen around Tulagi and Gavutu Harbours, good anchorages which were another objective.

After the preparatory bombardment the Marines started moving ashore. On Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo fierce battles raged from the outset. The First Raider Battalion (Colonel Merritt A. Edson) and Second Battalion, Fifth Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel Harold E. Rosecrans) landed on Tulagi, where the Japanese garrison of about 500 holed up in a hill at the southern end of the island. The enemy forces fought, almost literally, to the last man and only three were taken prisoner: the others were killed in their hillside strongholds, where they kept up resistance until wiped out by a well-placed hand grenade or a Marine charge through the cave entrance. It took three days to end Japanese resistance here.

On the half-mile-long islands of Gavutu and Tanambogo, twins connected by a causeway where the Japanese had built a seaplane base, there was enemy resistance at the water's edge. There, as on Tulagi, the Japanese (numbering about 1,500) shut themselves up in caves on the hills which rise in the centre of both islands, and had to be blasted out of each position. Only 14 were taken prisoner.

Parachutists Land on Gavutu

The 1st Parachute Battalion (Major Robert H. Williams) made the landing on Gavutu and was joined on the second day by the 3rd Battalion, 2nd Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel R. G. Hunt) who helped mop up the island. Lieutenant-Colonel Hunt's battalion also seized Tanambogo. Operations in the Tulagi-Gavutu area were under the immediate command of Brigadier-General William H. Rupertus, Jr., Assistant Division Commander of the 1st Marine Division.



MEN WHO DIRECTED THE GUADALCANAL-TULAGI LANDINGS

Rear-Admiral R. K. Turner, U.S. Navy (left), who commanded the transport fleet which brought the U.S. 1st Marine Division (Reinforced) through the Coral Sea to the Japanese-held islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi and Gavutu, S.E. Solomons, discusses the plan of attack with Maj.-Gen. A. A. Vandegrift, commander of the landing forces. The enemy failed to spot the convoy, and the assault achieved the initial success of surprise. *Photo, Sport & General*



TULAGI, CAPTURED AFTER THREE DAYS' FIERCE FIGHTING

Smoke rises from a supply dump on Tulagi Island following an attack by American carrier-based Navy bombers. The pall obscures the deep water channel which divides Tulagi from Florida Island, in background. The smaller islands in foreground are (respectively, bottom to top) Songonangona, Kokomtabu and Mbangai. (See map, p. 2482.) *Photo, U.S. Navy Official*

On Guadalcanal enemy resistance was weak. The landing was made six miles east of the airfield, by the 1st and 3rd Battalions of the 5th Marines (Colonel Leroy P. Hunt) and the 1st Marines (Colonel Clifton B. Cates). After seizing a beach-head, the Marines moved through the coconut plantations and jungle near the shore to occupy the airfield, and by the evening of the 8th it was in our hands. The small Japanese garrison—the Japanese had been foolish enough to build the valuable installations without a proper defence force—fled from the airfield area before our advance and retired to the west, across the Matanikau River, to await reinforcements. The real fight for Guadalcanal began when the Japanese tried to recapture the airfield, and lasted for six months as the enemy mounted four offensives, each on a larger scale than the last, to drive out the Americans.

Japanese reaction to the landings on Guadalcanal and Tulagi was swift and violent. Twice on the first day of the landing and twice the next day enemy aircraft attacked our shipping, but only one transport was sunk by a burning plane which crashed into an open hold. Almost at once the enemy started organizing reinforcing groups to land on Guadalcanal. The most effective counter-stroke, however, came the second night after our landing. A strong force of Japanese cruisers and destroyers sped toward Guadalcanal from the north-western Solomons. Shortly after midnight of August 8 it engaged our screening force near Savo Island, ten miles off Guadalcanal, and for half an hour air and sea were torn by naval gunfire. Our forces suffered severe losses—three United States heavy cruisers ("Astoria," "Vincennes," and "Quincy") and the Australian cruiser "Canberra"—and local balance of sea power swung sharply in favour of the enemy.

So serious were these losses that our transports and supply ships could not safely remain in the area to continue unloading and on the afternoon of August 9, while we watched from the shore, the ships withdrew to the east. The results of this defeat at sea and the consequent withdrawal of our ships were acutely felt almost at once. There were shortages in many categories of supplies and equipment. On Tulagi, Marines went on a schedule of one meal a day, on Guadalcanal two meals a day, to stretch the small supply of rations as far as possible. Shortage of power machinery, digging implements, and lack of barbed wire and sand bags hampered development of defences around the airfield.

Fortunately the Japanese had left their installations and stores intact, and supplies of food helped to augment the Marines' meagre larder. Radio installations, an electric plant, trucks, tractors, lumber and sand-bags were quickly put to use. The biggest prize of all was the runway, almost completed, on which the Japanese had been frantically working during the month before the invasion. Within two days a gap in the centre of the runway had been filled and it was ready to receive planes.

Marines Lacked Air Cover

No planes, however, were available for operations from Henderson Field until two weeks later. During that period no means were available to stop Japanese bombers from coming over Guadalcanal or to prevent Japanese surface craft from prowling about the island. As it turned out, the Japanese were not yet prepared to launch a strong counter-attack with landing operations and the critical fortnight, when the little beach-head around Henderson Field lay exposed to air and sea attack, passed without major incident.

Having seized the airfield, the Marines' mission was to defend it against enemy counter-attacks. A defence perimeter, as complete as it could be with the limited number of men and amount of defence material available, was thrown around the field, and an area of about fourteen square miles was occupied. The eastern boundary of our defences lay along the Tenaru River, a sluggish stream shut off from the sea, except in flood, by a sand bar.

Continued activity of Japanese surface craft at night off Guadalcanal indicated that something was afoot, and though we had no means of aerial reconnaissance to keep us informed of Japanese ship movements near the island, it was supposed that they had made some landings near by.

The defenders were alert at all times and eventually the Japanese blow fell. About two o'clock in the morning of August 21 our outposts on the banks of the Tenaru saw figures moving about on the far shore and scurrying across the sand bar. In a typical *banzai* charge the Japanese, who had landed under cover of darkness many

miles up the beach to the east several nights before, tried to rush across the sand bar and overwhelm our defences. Some got across, but the bulk of the attacking force was driven back and in a steady fire fight which lasted until well after dawn, the Japanese were held at bay on the opposite bank of the river.

The Marines in that sector were two battalions of the 1st Marines, a regiment commanded by Colonel Clifton B. Cates. After daybreak his 1st Battalion (Lieutenant-Colonel L. B. Cresswell) crossed the Tenaru well up-stream, worked through the underbrush and coconuts at the Japanese rear, closed to the beach, and with the 2nd Battalion (Lieutenant-Colonel E. A. Pollock), which was holding the west bank of the river, penned the enemy in a tiny area against the beach.

This enveloping movement resulted in almost complete annihilation of the enemy. Artillery, mortars, machine-guns, and rifles poured a steady fire into the Japanese pocket and in the afternoon a platoon of five tanks was sent across the sand bar to range the coconut grove and mop up the survivors of the Japanese force.

Before sundown the job was finished; almost 900 of the enemy lay dead on the banks of the Tenaru. Only the rear guard, which had remained six miles to the east, escaped the disaster that overtook the main body. One Japanese surrendered, 14 were taken prisoner, the rest were killed. Our own losses were 34 killed, 75 wounded. The attempted raid on Henderson Field had failed utterly.

Enemy Use Destroyers as Transports

Meanwhile, however, much more substantial enemy forces were moving toward the island. Marine planes, which first arrived at Guadalcanal on August 20, and naval planes from aircraft carriers which had swung back toward Guadalcanal, sought out the approaching convoy and inflicted such losses that it turned back. This sea-air engagement has become known as the Battle of the Eastern Solomons (August 23-25). Thereafter, so long as we had planes based on Guadalcanal capable of attacking their approaching ships, the Japanese did not try to send reinforcements on slow vulnerable transports. Instead they resorted to landings, east or west of us, from fast destroyers which, night after night, came to Guadalcanal with deck-loads of supplies and detachments of men, quickly unloaded, then sped away again under cover of darkness. The Japanese also sent in reinforcements by means of landing barges which progressed in easy stages down the chain of the Solomons from bases in the north.

By these methods the Japanese built up their ground forces on Guadalcanal for another attempt to recapture the airfield. At the same time they sought to cut down our air force, greatly outnumbered in those early days, by daily raids on our position. Landings were made both in the Cape Esperance area, at the north-west tip of the island, and near Taivu Point, about 15 miles east of the airfield.

The necessity of maintaining as strong a defence perimeter as possible around the airfield, in the face of superior Japanese mobility, and the shortage of landing boats and other craft for water transport hindered plans for driving the enemy from his positions on the island. It was decided, however, to risk a raid on the principal enemy beach-head, at Taivu Point, and upset his plans for a co-ordinated attack from several directions against the Lunga Point area.

On September 8 the 1st Raider Battalion under Colonel Edson landed at dawn east of Taivu Point and made a successful raid in which large quantities of stores, ammunition, and some artillery pieces were captured or destroyed. Although the enemy forces in the neighbourhood far outnumbered the Marine raiders, the main Japanese force had already started to move westward toward the Lunga and the rearguard resistance to the raid was ineffective. The Raiders returned to Henderson Field and were assigned a sector on a ridge south of the airfield. At this period there were great gaps in the defence line in that sector and it appeared that the Japanese were about to take full advantage of this weakness. Their main force, a brigade in strength, was cutting through the jungle south and east of us, in the general direction of the ridge.

Battle of Raiders Ridge

Aerial activity grew as the Japanese sought to prepare for their attack with a series of bombings. On the night of September 12-13 their advance units (apparently the main force had not yet worked into position for the attack) hit the Marine line on the ridge. Japanese cruisers and destroyers supported the attack with intermittent periods of shelling throughout the night, and by morning the enemy had succeeded in pushing the Raiders back to their reserve line athwart the ridge.

The main assault began the following night shortly after sundown. About

JAPANESE DEAD LITTERED GUADALCANAL BEACHES

With the fanaticism born of their religion and a long warrior tradition, the Japanese proved to be suicidally defiant enemies at Guadalcanal, as in New Guinea. They would not surrender: they had to be annihilated. After the first counter-offensive aimed at recapturing Henderson Field, practically the whole enemy force of some 900 lay dead on the banks of the Tenaru. U.S. Marines are here guarding a beach that became a shambles. *Photo, Fred Pepper*



3,000 Japanese, again supported by naval gunfire, tried to breach the line of 400 Marines defending the ridge. By familiar tactics of infiltration and charges they slowly worked their way along the grass-covered slopes and the Raiders were forced back in a night-long battle which threatened to end at dawn with the enemy in position on the heights overlooking the airfield. The Marine line held, however, and supported by heavy artillery concentrations (by the 11th Marines under Colonel P. A. del Valle) which did much to break up the enemy's advance, the Raiders repelled the attackers in the early morning hours. The 2nd Battalion, 5th Marines, under Col. W. J. Whaling had crossed the airfield during the night to support the Raiders, and they pressed the enemy back along the ridge. By daybreak the Japanese were in full retreat, withdrawing into the hills to await reinforcements.

Meanwhile the enemy had launched two minor attacks at other points on our defence perimeter. Both were weaker than the main effort along the ridge and neither achieved a break-through. The steady bombings of enemy forces in the north-west end of the island by our planes had seriously cut their strength, and the attack from that direction was very light.

The brigade's three-pronged attack, like that of Colonel Ichiki in August, had failed and there followed a lull as the Japanese gathered strength for another effort. The pace of their night landings increased, but this time all were made west of our position. We, too, were reinforced by the arrival of the 7th Marines under Colonel Amor L. Sims.

The continued growth of Japanese forces on Guadalcanal indicated that they had by no means given up hope of driving the Americans off the island. They were building up to a major effort this time, and they no longer under-estimated our strength.

The Marine command on Guadalcanal was confronted with a new problem. During the first two months of the campaign the enemy's attacking forces had been highly mobile for quick and quiet movements through the jungle, and their equipment had been correspondingly light. Their arms had been rifles, machine-guns, mortars, anti-tank guns, demolition material, grenades and bayonets. To make up for the lack of artillery and heavy weapons they had relied on surprise and the confusion of night fighting. Now, however, they were landing artillery and were obviously planning to shell the airfield and make it unusable by our planes. The defensive system of a cordon of men thrown about the airfield had proved adequate against Japanese infantry attacks, but if the vital runway should come under artillery fire, even intermittent fire, our possession of the field would serve little purpose. General Vandegrift therefore had to use the limited forces at his disposal to perform the double task of continuing to hold the airfield, and at the same time endeavouring to keep the Japanese beyond artillery range of the field.

General Vandegrift's Double Task

Accordingly, on October 8, 1942, the 5th Marines (then commanded by Colonel Edson) and the 7th Marines, under Colonel Sims, attacked across the Matanikau River, six miles west of Henderson Field. Patrol encounters and a spirited but inconclusive clash along the river late in September had indicated that the main Japanese force was moving up to the river and trying to establish a bridgehead on our side for artillery positions.

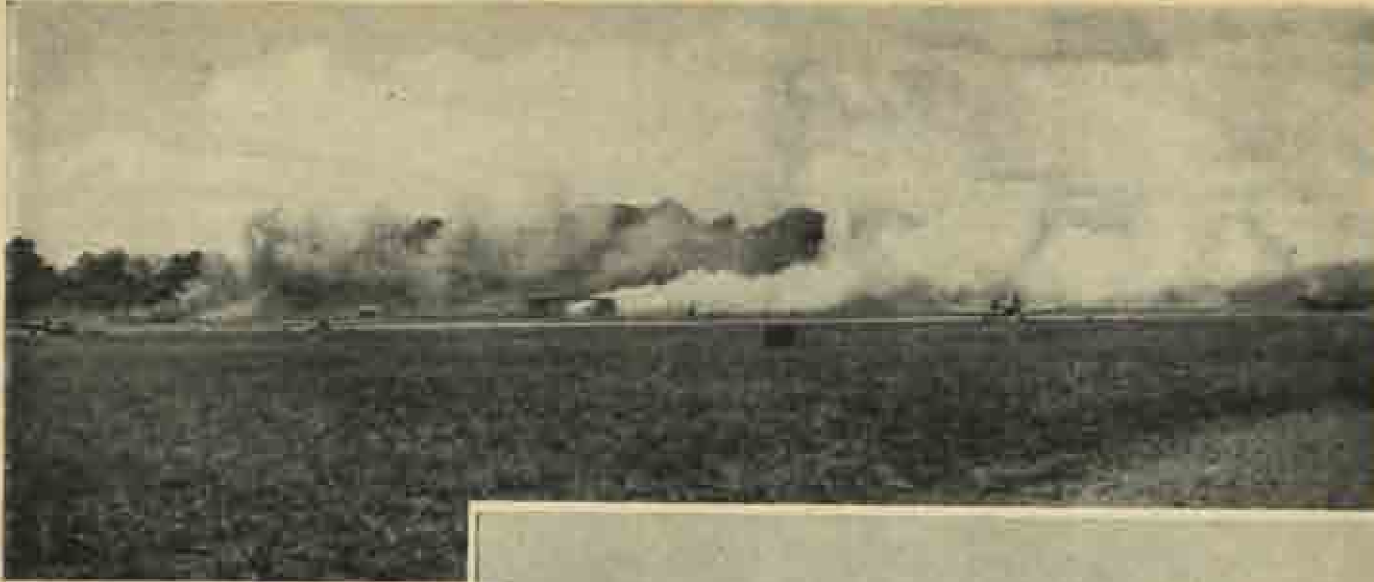
While the 5th Marines delivered a holding attack against the mouth and lower reaches of the river, the 7th Marines and the 3rd Battalion of the 2nd Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel R. G. Hunt) attacked on the enemy's right flank, forced a crossing farther upstream, fought the Japanese on the steep forbidding ridges and in the jungle-choked draws south of the river mouth, inflicted substantial losses and compelled

GUADALCANAL, KEY TO THE COMMAND OF THE S. PACIFIC

At Guadalcanal Island was the pivot of control of the Solomons and the Southern Pacific. Henderson Field, its great aerodrome on the northern coastal plain, was the strategic centre of the island itself. Whoever held Henderson Field, and could equip it with planes, dominated the whole island, with its palm-fringed shores and jungle heights. It thus became the primary objective of both forces and the scene of most of the fighting. (See also map, p. 2446.)

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*







HENDERSON FIELD

A ridge protected Henderson Field on the south (right). It was held by 400 men of the 1st Raider Battalion of the U.S. Marines when the enemy launched a determined attack, September 12–14, 1942, preceded by aerial bombardment (above). The Raiders, supported by heavy artillery fire, repelled wave after wave of 3,000 of the enemy, of whom 600 were killed and the others routed.

Photos, U.S. Marine Corps Official; Associated Press

the remainder of the enemy force to withdraw westward.

The Japanese were pushed back beyond light artillery range of the airfield and a strong defensive line was set up at the Matanikau. The Marines' limited attack had been undertaken in the nick of time. As it happened the Japanese were about to begin a powerful offensive, and if they had retained a bridgehead on the east side of the river during the critical weeks that followed, the outcome of the October battles might have been very different. (See map p. 2486.)

Matanikau River Made Defensive Line

The Japanese had decided to bombard Henderson Field from air and sea so heavily that our aircraft would be knocked out long enough for a convoy to move to Guadalcanal without threat of serious air attack. This plan almost succeeded.

The "big push" started on October 11. That afternoon an attempted large-scale air raid failed to hit the target area and at night a Japanese surface force, trying to bring in reinforcements to the north-west end of the island as they had done on so many nights, was intercepted by a U.S. naval task force off Cape Esperance. For the second time in the Guadalcanal campaign a sea battle raged within sight of the American beach-head. The Japanese lost a heavy cruiser, four destroyers, and a transport, while our forces lost only one destroyer with some damage to other ships. Planes from Henderson Field chased the fleeing enemy force after daybreak and sank a cruiser and a destroyer and heavily damaged another cruiser.

After this defeat for the Japanese there was a surge of hope among the defenders of Guadalcanal that at last, after more than two months of arduous fighting, the enemy would give up his efforts to recapture the airfield and cease to risk planes and ships around Guadalcanal. In point of fact, however, the major battle was just starting.

On October 13, as the 164th Infantry Regiment of the United States Army (Colonel B. E. Moore, U.S.A.) was landing in the Lunga area to reinforce the defenders of Henderson Field, the Japanese opened up with a heavy air raid. Four waves of planes, bombers and fighters, swept over the island and blasted the runways. At 6.30 that evening Japanese artillery, for the first time, opened fire on Henderson Field. Though they were beyond light artillery range, they had landed some six-inch guns which could safely fire from beyond the reach of our own artillery. During the night intermittent bombings continued, and at 1.30 in the morning of October 14 a force of battleships, cruisers and destroyers opened a heavy and sustained bombardment of our position. For almost two hours steel and high explosives rained on Henderson Field. Those of us who went through that bombardment wondered if much could be left of the aircraft concentrated on Guadalcanal; few planes did, in fact, survive intact.

The enemy's purpose was to destroy, for a short time at least, our air power on the island and bring in large reinforcements aboard a convoy without danger





NAVAL LOSSES AT GUADALCANAL

The enemy swiftly recovered from the shock of surprise and took heavy toll of Allied shipping. (Above) A Japanese torpedo-bomber heads for a line of U.S. ships just visible on the horizon. But in the final naval battle in the Solomons, November 12-15, 1942, the Japanese counter-invasion fleet was cut to pieces: (left) the transport 'Kinugawa Maru' beached at Guadalcanal.

Photos, Black Star; Keystone

of serious air attack. The following day, October 14, air attacks continued and late in the afternoon our reconnaissance planes found a convoy of six transport ships with heavy escort moving down the coast of Santa Isabel towards Guadalcanal. Only seven dive-bombers could be mustered as a striking force to attack the convoy, and just before sundown they made their attack. One transport was sunk, but the rest of the force moved steadily on towards Guadalcanal, and that night they began landing ten to 20 miles west of the American beach-head under cover of another heavy shelling by the Japanese escort vessels.

October 15 was a black day on Guadalcanal. Only three dive-bombers had survived the second night of naval shelling, but as the Japanese reinforcements were brazenly unloading within sight of our position, these remnants of our air power were sent to attack. Two crashed in bomb and shell craters trying to take off at dawn; the third succeeded in making a diving run and damaged one of the transports. The ground crews did wonders that day and managed to get 12 damaged planes into the air by noon. By the middle of the afternoon three of the enemy transports were sunk or blazing on the beach and the other two had been damaged and were withdrawing, but undoubtedly the Japanese had landed most of what they hoped to get ashore.

Another blow added to our woes. Early in the morning the aviation command had informed General Vandegrift that there was no more aviation spirit on the island. At this critical moment in the campaign it looked as though our few remaining dive-bombers and fighters would have to be grounded for lack of fuel. Actually, some small dumps of petrol still remained, but the shortage remained serious. Fuel was drained from wrecked planes on the field and was flown to the island in driblets aboard transport planes. By such expedients a small supply was kept available for the dangerous days that lay ahead.

Japanese naval shellings continued for two more nights during the week and the forces that had landed west of us began moving towards our defence perimeter. The main body hacked a trail through forbidding terrain well south of the coast, across steep ridges, and through dense jungle growth to a point south of our lines. Other enemy units moved eastwards along the coast to the Matanikau, preparing to launch a holding attack across the river which would be co-ordinated with the main effort south of the airfield.

Serious U.S. Air Reverses

Patrol encounters grew more spirited as both sides prepared for the coming test on land, and after some preliminary thrusts at our lines at the mouth of the

Matanikau, the Japanese attack began on the night of October 23. The first blow took the form of a tank attack across the Matanikau, held by the 3rd Battalion, 1st Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel W. N. McKelvy). Twelve Japanese tanks tried to force a crossing of the sand bar which almost shuts off the outlet to the sea, but all were knocked out in a battle lasting from sundown to midnight. The 11th Marines laid down a heavy concentration of artillery on the area at the base of Point Cruz, immediately to the rear of the tank spearhead, and we later learned that a battalion of Japanese infantry, prepared to exploit any breach the tanks might make in our river line, was wiped out in the barrage.

The main offensive was launched on the night of October 24, from the jungle south of the airfield. Apparently the forces involved in that action had not come up quickly enough to co-ordinate their assaults with the holding attack at the mouth of the Matanikau, and our command was spared the necessity of deciding where to commit our reserve. This "reserve," in any case, was pathetically small at that juncture, consisting only of one under-strength and battle-worn battalion.

Matanikau River Fighting

For three nights the Japanese tried to break through the defence perimeter south of the airfield but were thrown back with staggering losses—twenty to thirty times our own—by the 1st Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel Lewis B. Puller) and the 3rd Battalion, 164th Infantry, U.S. Army (Lieutenant-Colonel R. K. Hall, U.S.A.). On two of those nights attacks were also made against a ridge south-east of the Matanikau, held by the 2nd Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Hanneken), and although one break-through was made in a thinly held sector the position was retrieved.

In four nights of bitter fighting the Japanese had suffered truly shattering losses in futile attempts to break through the defence perimeter. Our line remained intact and the offensive strength of the Japanese 2nd Division, reinforced, had been broken.

General Vandegrift then decided upon a counter-attack against the Japanese remnants withdrawing to the south and west. A primary objective was to push them beyond heavy artillery range of the airfield in the west. The attack began on November 1 with the 5th Marines (Colonel Edson) and 2nd Marines (Colonel J. M. Arthur) alternating in assault positions and with the 3rd Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel W. R. Williams) and "Whaling's Snipers" (a specially trained group of woodsmen and marksmen under Col. W. J. Whaling) on their left flank. They were slowly pushing the enemy back through the ridges and jungle west of the Matanikau when it developed that the Japanese were preparing for another and even greater attack on Henderson Field.

This time they planned to send two divisions into action. Their bombardment group of ships was to include four battleships, while landings were to be made on both sides of us. A preliminary landing to establish a beach-head was made on the night of November 2–3 near Taivu Point. The 2nd Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieut.-Colonel Hanneken)

TANKS LED ENEMY ASSAULT ON THE MATANIKAU RIVER

Greatly reinforced in numbers, the enemy launched a third attack on Henderson Field on October 23, 1942, its spearhead consisting of 12 tanks which tried to force a crossing of the Matanikau River sand-bar, held by the 3rd Battalion, 1st Marines. All were knocked out in a battle lasting from sundown to midnight: below, five of them stranded on the sand-bar. A battalion of infantry following them was wiped out by artillery fire.

Photo, U.S. Marine Corps Official



had been sent to the east of our lines to contest just such a landing, and they engaged the Japanese the following morning. Because of a breakdown in communications the Marine Headquarters on Henderson Field did not know of the landing or battle until the afternoon of the 3rd, and Lieutenant-Colonel Hanneken withdrew to the Metapona River after exhausting his mortar ammunition. There he dug in, and Lieutenant-Colonel Puller's 1st Battalion, 7th Marines hurriedly moved out to the Metapona to join him.

Two battalions of the 164th Infantry and a battalion of the 8th Marines (Colonel R. H. Jeschke), who had landed on November 4, were also soon engaged in that sector and by the 9th most of the Japanese landing party had been pinned against the beach and killed. Some broke through the noose to escape southward across the coastal plain into the jungle, where they fell victim to the Raider Battalion of Lieutenant-Colonel Evans F. Carlson who had landed east of the Japanese beach-head on November 4. For 30 days this unit, in a remarkable expedition through the jungle, combed the area around our defence perimeter from one side to the other, mopping up the remnants of Japanese forces which had taken refuge deep in the jungle.

Enemy Checked on the Metapona



FOUR OF THE VERY FEW WHO WERE TAKEN PRISONER

Dulled and dispirited, weary from siege and starvation, a wretched group of Japanese prisoners on the Kokumbona beach await transportation to a prison camp as soon as the Marines have unloaded the ship that will take them. Few indeed were those for whom the fighting ended thus. The vast mass of the enemy were either killed or wounded.

Photo, Keystone

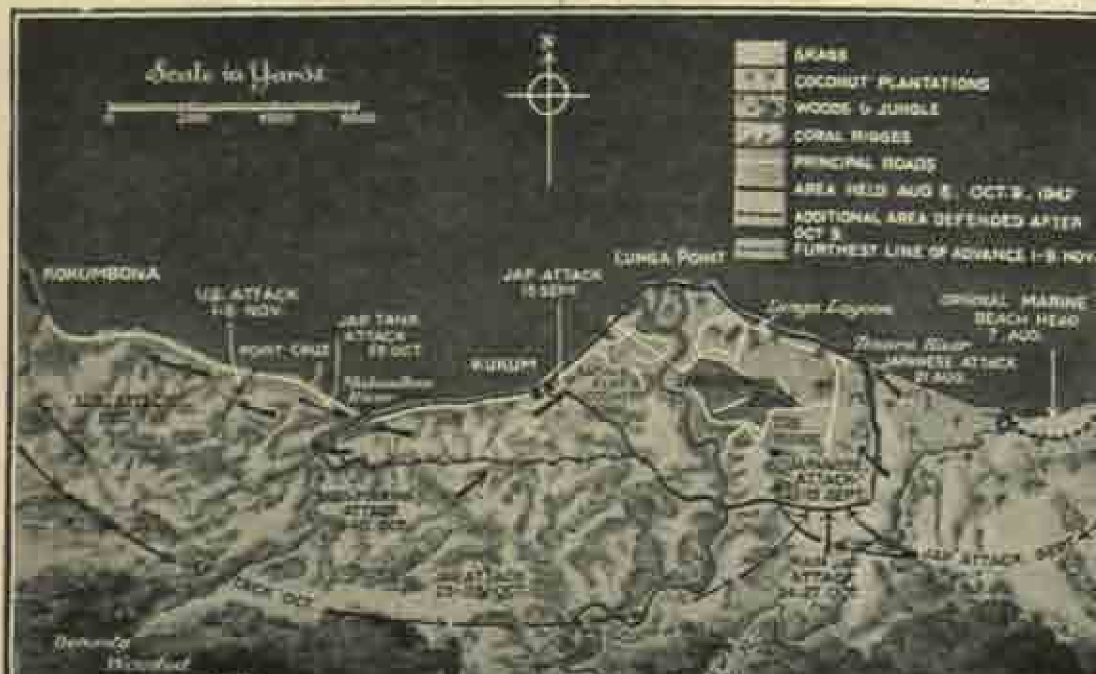
In the middle of November the full-scale Japanese offensive materialized and in the great three-day sea-air engagement between November 12 and 15 the last and greatest attempt to recapture Henderson Field was crushed.

In that period the Japanese again sought to destroy our aircraft by heavy naval shelling. During the night of November 12-13, a strong force of enemy battleships, cruisers, and destroyers moved in to shell Henderson Field. Their aircraft had just dropped flares over the field, the invariable prelude to a naval bombardment, when the firing started. It was not, however, a bombardment of the field. A U.S. task force of cruisers and destroyers, much lighter than the Japanese, had returned to the straits off the island after escorting to the open sea a convoy of ships which had brought in Army reinforcements during the day. This small fleet, commanded by Rear-Admiral Daniel J. Callaghan, attacked

CLOSE-UP OF THE GUADALCANAL BATTLEGROUND

Following the American seizure of Henderson Field, the eastern boundary of their defences lay along the Tenaru River, scene of the first Japanese counter-attack, August 21, 1942. The second enemy assault was dispelled on Raiders' Ridge, south of the airfield, September 13-15. Their third thrust was against the Matanikau River defensive line, October 23-26. Their fourth and last attempt on land to expel the Americans from the island started from Taivu Point and ended at the Metapona River on November 9. (See also map, p. 2482.)

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Felix Gardon







ARMY RELIEVED THE MARINES IN LAST PHASE AT GUADALCANAL

The failure of their fourth offensive in mid-November 1942 ended the Japanese attempt to recapture Guadalcanal. Mopping-up alone remained, and during December fresh units of the U.S. Army, under Maj.-General A. M. Patch (right), relieved the battle-worn 1st Marine Division under Maj.-General Vandegrift: (below) a 'Leatherneck,' pack on back, gets a farewell handshake from a soldier; (above) the Army used 155-mm. guns to blast out the remaining Japanese: on Feb. 10, 1943, organized resistance ended.

Photos, U.S. Marine Corps Official; Sport & General; Keystone





U.S. ARMY MOVES IN TO FINISH OFF THE CAMPAIGN

From a transport anchored off Lunga Point, landing-boats loaded with men of the U.S. Army strike out for Guadalcanal beach, there to relieve the Marines who had been engaged in gruelling fighting, August–December 1942. In background on left is Henderson Field, richest prize of Guadalcanal, possession of which made possible the later and successful campaigns in the Solomons. Three enemy planes can be discerned, top right. *Photo, Pictorial Press*

the heavier enemy force and drove it off with severe losses, including damage to a Kongo class battleship. The disabled battleship was sunk by planes from Henderson Field the next day. In the night battle, fought at close range, Rear-Admirals Callaghan and Norman Scott were killed. The next night the Japanese ships returned and shelled Henderson Field for 45 minutes, but damage was relatively light, and on November 14, when the enemy convoy of 12 transports and supply ships with heavy escort began its approach to Guadalcanal, the Marine and Navy aviation units based on Henderson Field were powerful enough to destroy most of it. Throughout the day these aircraft attacked the approaching convoy and by nightfall five of the transports had been sunk, three more were ablaze and helpless, and the remaining four had been damaged. That night, November 14–15, the remnants of the Japanese surface force tried to close Guadalcanal but were intercepted by a U.S. task force commanded by Rear-Admiral W. A. Lee, Junr., including battleships, which inflicted further losses on the Japanese Navy. Four supply ships succeeded in reaching the shore of Guadalcanal, but were quickly sunk by our artillery and aircraft after dawn.

In this three-day engagement our ships and planes had sunk 28 Japanese ships, including at least one battleship and probably another, and had damaged ten more ships. The Japanese forces had been utterly smashed. We had lost two cruisers and seven destroyers. This last desperate offensive in mid-November ended the final major attempt of the enemy to recapture the island. At the end of the month increased Japanese naval activity in the Solomons indicated that they might be starting a new offensive, but heavy losses were inflicted on enemy surface craft and the spurt of activity ceased. In the battle of Lunga Point, which took place during the night of November 30–December 1, the U.S. Navy sank ten enemy surface craft trying to approach Guadalcanal, with the loss of the heavy cruiser U.S.S. "Northampton." Three days later an enemy surface force, consisting of four cruisers and six destroyers, was attacked by our aircraft as it approached Guadalcanal and two ships in each category were damaged by bombs and torpedoes.

Thereafter the work of the American forces on the island was essentially a mopping-up operation. United States Army troops landed in increasing numbers, and during December battle-worn units of the 1st Marine Division began to leave the island. On December 9 Major-General Vandegrift relinquished command of the combined Army and Marine forces on Guadalcanal to Major-General Alexander M. Patch of the United States Army, commanding the Americal Division.

By the middle of January the Army had built up sufficient strength to undertake an offensive to expel the Japanese from the island. Ahead of them lay a gruelling campaign, a steady push through the jungle and along the shore to the west. The drive started with the capture of Mount Austen, a commanding height about four miles south-west of the airfield. Army units then cut inland, aiming at Kokumbona, while soldiers and marines advanced along the beach. The forces met near Kokumbona on the 25th, and then Army units pushed on to the west. Army landings seven miles west of Cape Esperance at Titi caught the remaining Japanese in a pocket and after the two Army forces had joined Major-General Patch was able to announce, on February 10, that organized Japanese resistance had ended on Guadalcanal. Some of the enemy troops had been evacuated early in February, others late in January. Those remaining were killed or captured, or fled into the jungle.

Army's Gruelling Task

Six months after the original American landings on Guadalcanal the island was at last entirely in our hands. It had been a most exhausting campaign, in which the tropical climate, the jungle and malaria had been enemies as formidable as the Japanese. There had been six months of almost constant action, at sea, in the air, and on land. Even so, long before Japanese resistance had ended, the airfields on Guadalcanal had become bases for attack against enemy positions farther north.

On Guadalcanal island the United States had won its first clean-cut victory over the Japanese. The enemy's losses in aircraft and ships had been heavy. All branches of our Services had learned valuable lessons in jungle and night warfare. They had taken the measure of an enemy who had come to think of himself as invincible. There would be many more campaigns in the Pacific jungles, against an enemy who died rather than surrendered, but never again was the fight likely to be so long and so gruelling, with such limited resources in ships, planes and men.

Chapter 251

AMERICA SETTLES DOWN TO TOTAL WAR: JULY—DECEMBER 1942

Shocked by Pearl Harbour and chastened by American reverses in the Philippines, the United States attained its full war stride only in the latter half of 1942, the period here comprehensively reviewed by Mr. Selden Menefee, lecturer in sociology at the National University, Washington, who takes up the story of the United States Home Front where it was left off in Chapter 215

THE stark realities of the fighting war were scarcely felt by the people of the United States until the last half of 1942, apart from the shocking news of Pearl Harbour and the Philippine campaign. When the first complete American casualty list was issued in July, only 4,801 men were reported killed, 3,218 wounded, and 36,124 missing. Most of these losses were suffered in the Philippines and Java; and only scattered towns in California, New Mexico and a few other states, whose boys had made up a disproportionate number of the Philippine forces, were drastically affected.

On August 8, however, the entire nation was thrilled by the report that the first American land and sea offensive against the Japanese had been opened in the Solomons. Three months later came the news of the North African invasion, which produced an exhilaration quite as marked as the grim foreboding which followed Pearl Harbour. These were the two great landmarks in the war until now so far as Americans were concerned—Pearl Harbour and North Africa. There was still agitation for the opening of a second front in Europe during the closing weeks of 1942, but people generally felt by the end of the year that they were at last on their way to Berlin and Tokyo.

The American people were reacting to the war situation much better than the Press reports might have indicated to an outsider. In September President Roosevelt made a surprise tour of many of the country's war production centres. When he returned he reported that everywhere he had found the people's morale good, their war spirit aggressive, their work amazingly efficient. In the plants he had visited, production had attained about 95 per cent of the seemingly almost impossible goals he had set in January.

President Roosevelt's Summing-up

The people understood the war, and if Congress, Washington newspapermen and Government officials themselves would emulate the country's example, he said, we would be much better off.

In 1942 the conversion of America's huge industrial plant had been pushed far along the road to a full war footing. The year's achievements were impressive: the goal of 8,000,000 tons of merchant shipping had been exceeded by a generous quota, although submarine sinkings exceeded new construction by a million tons; more warships had been built than in any year during the nation's history; 48,000 planes had rolled off the assembly lines; tank and other munitions production was rising steeply in proportion to these achievements. About 10,000,000 workers were directly engaged in war production, with further thousands of men and women flocking into the busy war centres every week. The Army had bought property for training grounds, ordnance plants and the like until its holdings were equivalent in area to half of England.

The achievements of the shipyards were worthy of special note. In 1940 only 53 cargo ships, totalling 634,000 dead-weight tons, had been built; in 1941, 95 ships were built, and in the first eight months of 1942, 367 ships. (By contrast, in the First Great War not a single cargo vessel of the wartime programme was delivered by American yards until after the war was ended!) There was inefficiency in the mushroom shipyards, of course. But some were setting up phenomenal records. Mr. Henry J. Kaiser's Richmond shipyard launched a 10,500-ton Liberty ship 29 days after the laying of the keel, and a month later his Portland shipyard put together a Liberty ship from prefabricated parts in the record-breaking time of three days, 23 hours, and 30 minutes. This was, of course, a stunt, but the same yard had been turning out 11 ships per month from its 11 slipways for some time. Throughout the country as a whole, three ships a day were being turned out by November.

Aircraft production, too, had its sore spots—such as Mr. Henry Ford's bomber plant at Willow Run, near Detroit—but its progress was remarkable. California's Lockheed Aircraft had increased its production rate from $2,007,000 in 1936 to over $500,000,000 by the end of 1942. Machine tool production reached a value of $1,500,000,000 in 1942, ten times the normal pre-war rate.

Phenomenal Progress in Shipbuilding



MR. ROOSEVELT TOURS U.S. WAR FACTORIES

In the autumn of 1942 President Roosevelt made a secret tour of American defence plants, and expressed himself as satisfied with the progress being made. Here he is with Mr. A. J. Higgins, from whose New Orleans shipyard came many of the landing craft, tank lighters, and similar vessels, which made possible the Allied landings in the Pacific, and in North Africa, Sicily and Italy. His designs for such vessels became standard throughout the United States.



STRESSING THE IMPORTANCE OF THE 'FOOD FRONT'

1942 was a significant year on the 'food front' in the United States. There was a bumper crop; net farm income was 45 per cent over 1941. Posters—here are two samples—formed part of a nation-wide publicity drive for increased production. In December 1942 Mr. Claude Wickard, Secretary for Agriculture, was appointed U.S. Food Administrator.

Photo, March of Time

The over-all picture was expressed in these figures for November 1942:

1. Index of total industrial production: 187 per cent of the 1935–39 average. Production of military equipment: up from $153 million to $5.5 thousand million per month.

2. Total civilian and military employment: up from 47,746,000 (in June 1940) to 59,200,000.

3. Average working week: up from 38 to 42 hours, rising as high as 55 hours in critical war industries.

4. Factory wage payments: 220 per cent of pre-war level.

5. Manufacturing profits: 15 per cent below 1940.

The mechanism by which this industrial transformation was brought about evolved through a process of trial and error. Thousands of millions of Government money were used to construct war plants, mostly for private operation. Yet in the summer of 1942 a drastic steel shortage actually cut the production of ships and tanks and it became apparent that synthetic rubber production was lagging. In September Mr. Donald Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board, put through a drastic reorganization of his agency, bringing in Mr. Charles E. Wilson, of the General Electric Company, as vice-chairman in charge of production and Mr. William M. Jeffers as director of the rubber programme. This was the last and most effective of a long series of reorganizations in this agency and its predecessors.

Lavish Government Spending

The country was changing rapidly as a result of the huge war programme. Small farming towns in the centre of the nation were being emptied in wholesale manner as people went after war jobs, and in many shipyard towns workers slept in garages, chicken coops, basements, tents and tourist cabins. High labour turn-over and absenteeism resulted.

Workers from depressed areas, with wages higher than they had ever earned before, spent their money freely. For example, Seattle, with its population swollen from 368,000 to 508,000 by war workers, had twice as many arrests for drunkenness during six months of 1942 as it had during any previous full year. Customers stood in line at restaurants and theatres, packed the out-of-town roadhouses, and kept the 25-cent slot machines clicking. Fourth Avenue and Pike Street, the "West End" of Seattle, were packed with people nearly 24 hours a day.

Some 50,000 men were now earning anything from $50 to $115 a week in the shipyards at Portland, Oregon. Local public-houses did big business cashing shipworkers' cheques on Thursdays (at 10-cent or 20-cent commission), then selling them beer and allowing them the privilege of using gaming machines. The Idle Hour Billiard Parlour cashed so many cheques that it installed a bullet-proof cash-desk, with armed guards standing by.

Social Effects of High Wages

In Detroit prosperous war workers also made a big splash, but mostly in noisy, smoky, gaudy places which looked like overgrown *Bierstuben*. At the big Bowery Club, the film star, Martha Raye, drew over 1,200 customers nightly to break house records. Almost all Detroit night-club customers were factory workers. The only complaint of the proprietors was that kitchen staff and waiters were hard to find, and harder to keep.

But beneath this tawdry surface of war workers seeking pleasure, there was a grim determination to fight the war through to a finish. One measure of the earnestness of America's workers was the labour situation. The principal labour groups held fast to their pledge



MR. PAUL V. McNUTT

Appointed Chairman of the U.S. War Man-Power Commission on April 18, 1942, with the job of deciding on priorities in man-power for industry, agriculture and other essential services, though not, of course, for the Armed Forces. One of the Commission's difficulties was that it had no power to order a worker to do anything.



MR. LEON HENDERSON

Head of the U.S. Office of Price Administration from April 11, 1941, to December 17, 1942. He stood his ground when Mid-Western and Western Congressmen protested against the extension of petrol rationing to their areas, and the Press regarded his resignation as an aftermath of the Congressional elections, in which the Government suffered.

Photos, March of Time; "New York Times" Photos





U.S. SHIPBUILDING TRIUMPHS

Novel methods and night-and-day work broke all shipbuilding records in the United States in 1942. (1) Midnight scene in a plant only one year old. (Left) Victory Fleet standard (top) and U.S. Maritime Commission 'M' pennant, flown by authorized yards. (2) Broadside launch of a submarine, in the Great Lakes area. (3) Work proceeds on a ship's bottom on same morning as keel was laid. Nine days later she was launched. (4) Mr. Henry J. Kaiser, most noted Liberty ship builder: before the war he had never been in any way associated with shipbuilding.

Photos, Fox; "New York Times"; "New York Times" Photos; Associated Press







not to strike in wartime. All strikes of any size were "wild-cat" demonstrations based on local grievances, unauthorized by the parent unions, and quickly ended when labour's national officials came on the scene.

Throughout 1942 there were about 3,000 strikes in the United States; yet they involved only 825,000 workers—a much better record than the corresponding year of the First Great War. Idleness due to strikes, totalled 4,225,000 man-days of work in 1942. The United States compared favourably in this respect with Great Britain, where a population little more than one-third as large lost 1,550,000 man-days of work in 1942. (By way of comparison, in the same year industrial accidents cost America 110,000,000 man-days of work, or over 25 times as many as did strikes.)

Rationing helped to drive the war home in America. On July 22 more stringent petrol control came into effect on the East Coast.

Lenient Petrol Rationing

Drivers were divided into A, B and C categories. The A card allowed four gallons a week to cover necessary local marketing and an occasional shopping trip to town, while more generous B and C rations were allotted to those who needed their cars to drive to work. (See illus., p. 2145.) But because bus and tram services could not accommodate all those who had been driving cars, local rationing boards were lenient and the great majority of motorists got at least enough petrol to drive their cars two or three days a week as part of an "Our Pool," or co-operative drivers' club scheme. (Meanwhile the railways were carrying over twice as many passengers as in 1929; there was even talk of rationing railway tickets, but this did not materialize.)

Coffee rationing was announced in October because of the shortage of ships for transporting coffee beans from Brazil. However, whereas sugar and petrol had been rationed simultaneously with the initial announcement, coffee rationing was announced a month ahead of time. This resulted in a buying panic before the rationing became effective on November 29. In December a far-reaching plan for rationing canned goods was announced; but, profiting by the experience with coffee, the Office of Price Administration this time "froze" the sales of the rationed foods before the new controls began to operate. The rationing plan was so generous, however, that it caused few hardships to the average family.

The petrol and oil shortages made a great impression on the average motorist or owner of an oil-heated home. There was as yet no real shortage of oil but submarine attacks on American tankers had created a shipping shortage which could not be offset by the use of railway tank wagons. In August pleasure driving was banned, and police inspections were made at race-tracks and road-houses to enforce the ban. In the autumn fuel oil rationing was started on the East Coast. Most home owners with oil burners found themselves allotted about two-thirds as much oil as the year before; unused rooms had to be shut up, and temperatures dropped from the customary 75 degrees Fahrenheit, or higher, to 65 degrees. Most of those who could converted their oil furnaces to coal stoves.

In the last two months of the year the Office of Price Administration cut the value of petrol coupons in the East from four to three gallons, and nation-wide petrol rationing was announced for December 1.

Price Administration Under Fire

This extension of control was aimed primarily at saving tires, secondarily at appeasing the Easterners who felt discriminated against because they had been hit first and hardest by the oil rationing programme. (Conserving tires was of major importance in cities like Detroit, where most of the 546,000 car owners were war workers who drove to and from their jobs.)

A block of 75 Mid-western and Western Congressmen protested against the extension of petrol rationing, but the Price Administrator, Mr. Leon Henderson, stood his ground. This was one of the conflicts which led to Mr. Henderson's resignation and his replacement by a former Senator, Mr. Prentiss Brown, at the close of the year.

As America's armed forces and war industry grew rapidly, local shortages of man-power began to develop. By December 1942 there were over 52 million men and women in civilian employment, or almost 6 millions more than in December 1940.

Problem of Man-power Shortage

Unemployment had dropped to 1.5 millions, compared to 7.1 millions two years earlier. Most of those who were still unemployed lived in a few depressed areas, or were in process of shifting from normal to war employment. In many cities, however, industry was having trouble in recruiting enough workers to meet production schedules. By the end of the year "marginal" Negro workers, housewives, and part-time workers were being used more and more extensively. Even handicapped workers were in demand; midgets were used for work inside aeroplane fuselages, and deaf mutes were trained for jobs in Los Angeles metal shops, where deafness was a blessing!

Meanwhile the man-power problem was becoming more and more an issue between the War Man-power Commission and the armed services. On the West

CONSTANT U.S. VIGILANCE IN THE CARIBBEAN

Throughout 1942 enemy U-boat activity in the Caribbean and off the Atlantic coasts of North and South America demanded unremitting vigilance, symbolized by this U.S. trooper, silhouetted on duty at the ancient fort of San Cristobel, San Juan, *Puerto Rico*. On November 13, 1942 a U-boat crew actually landed on Costa Rica; they were engaged but the majority escaped to their vessel.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos





RECRUITS ARE SWORN IN BEFORE THE LIBERTY BELL

In the Independence Hall, *Philadelphia*, before the venerated Liberty Bell—rung on July 4, 1776 to announce the declaration of American independence from Britain—men of a new generation of Americans are sworn into the U.S. Armed Forces. Led by a senior officer, facing the Stars and Stripes, they recite the oath of allegiance.

Photo, Keystone

Coast aircraft manufacturers complained that the conscription of able-bodied single men was interfering with production; in August, September and October the Douglas Aircraft Company of Los Angeles lost 11,000 workers to the armed forces.

Something had to be done—and it was. Selective Service boards started calling up married men without children in many American cities; the Army lowered its physical standards, to permit men with defective teeth, or minus one eye, ear or thumb, to be enrolled for "limited service," freeing able-bodied men for active service; the women's branches of the services staged recruiting drives for the same purpose; and in November Congress passed a bill to call up 18- and 19-year-old youths, providing a breathing-space for older men and fathers.

But the civilian man-power question was becoming more and more worrying. The War Man-power Commission had no real power to order any worker to do anything. It could only formulate policy, setting up a system of priorities. Actually, war industry took top priority by virtue of its high wages; the Army took a higher priority through conscription; and local national service boards were at the top of the scale, through their authority to reclassify or defer workers. But there was no all-embracing plan.

In Detroit and many another city so many men had gone into the Army and war industry that there were not enough left to run the laundries, restaurants and stores which served the war workers. In Chattanooga, Tennessee, a "Situations Vacant" advertisement in a local paper said: "WANTED: Registered druggist—young or old, deaf or dumb. Must have license and walk without crutches. Apply Cloverleaf Drug Store."

In Portland Mr. Kaiser lost a thousand men a week from his shipyards. He sent agents all the way to New York, 3,000 miles distant, to recruit thousands of new workers. Yet in Portland there was talk among the employees about "labour hoarding"—the hiring of surplus workers as a precaution against future needs.

Meanwhile Government officials pointed out that 20,000,000 more workers still would be needed for war industry, and several millions more for the armed forces, before another year was up. Not until the U.S. had a combined military, war worker and essential civilian labour force of 61,000,000 would it have reached a stage of man-power mobilization comparable to that already attained in Great Britain.

In these circumstances agitation for conscription of labour for war industry began to be heard. The people were willing to submit to this, according to the public opinion polls; but first they wanted to be convinced that it was necessary. The Government took a middle course, preferring to use less drastic measures for as long as possible. In 1942 Mr. Paul McNutt, War Man-power Commissioner, had "frozen" on their jobs 1,500,000 aircraft workers, 110,000 merchant seamen and thousands of western miners, north-western lumber workers, and south-western railway workers. Just before the year ended he extended the control to cover 600,000 wage-earners in Detroit's war industries. Actually, the order merely required workers to show good reason before changing their jobs, and was not rigidly enforced. But the extension of such measures accomplished what was

'Conscript Labour' Demand

needed without stirring up resentment against "forced labour."

Jealous of its prerogatives, Congress hampered the Government's fight against increased prices by lopping off a quarter of the 1942-43 Budget asked by Mr. Leon Henderson, the Price Administrator, who had refused to consult the members of Congress about appointments while building up his staff. But Congress passed a $43,000,000,000 Army estimate without a dissenting vote, and much of this would come back to the American worker in wages. The surplus of many thousand millions of purchasing power over the production of consumers' goods, unless diverted to savings, meant a real danger of inflation. This danger was eased somewhat by a war bond sale, raising $11 thousand million, in December.

The threat of inflation came from several quarters. Pressure from the highly organized large farmers for higher prices, from employers for higher profits, and from labour for higher wages, all threatened to cause financial crisis. The Government stood firm, in the main, on its anti-inflation programme, although in October the Office of Price Administration raised the ceiling prices on food items so as to cost the public an additional $70 million per year.

Controls to Avoid Inflation

The greatest challenge to the inflation-control programme came in July, when the C.I.O. [Congress of Industrial Organizations] steel workers' union demanded a rise of $1 a day for its 157,000 workers in the "little (i.e. independent) steel" companies. The War Labour Board granted an increase of only 44 cents. The basis for this decision was that from January 1941 to May 1942 prices had risen about 15 per cent, according to a Government index. This was taken as the yard-stick for wage increases; henceforth only employees who had received rises of less than 15 per cent since January 1941 were to be allowed increases, and only up to this maximum level, except for a few workers whose wages were clearly beneath prevailing standards to begin with. Generous employers were forbidden to raise their employees' wages without permission from the War Labour Board. This "Little Steel Formula" was to be the Government's wage policy for at least a year and half.

After many lean years, the American farmer had a bumper crop year in 1942. Net farm income was up by 45 per cent over 1941. Gross income was a thousand million dollars higher than at the war peak in 1919. Yet twice in the autumn of 1942 the professional lobbyists who represented large farm interests in Washington tried to raise farm price ceilings. The Government killed both attempts, despite the propaganda of the lobbyists to convince American farmers that the Roosevelt Democrats were favouring labour as against agriculture.

Taxes were increased drastically by Congress, to finance the war and to combat inflation. A Federal sales tax was avoided, because it conflicted with the American principle of taxation based on ability to pay; but a flat five per cent "Victory Tax" was placed on all earnings above $12 a week. Personal income tax exemptions were lowered from $750 to $500 for single persons, and from $1,500 to $1,200 for married couples. Surtaxes were drastically increased to a maximum of 82 per cent on high incomes. The American tax schedule was still far below the level reached much earlier in Great Britain, especially at the middle and lower income levels; but to Americans it meant high taxes indeed. Few people complained at the new tax rates, however, though many grumbled about the complicated tax forms they had to fill in.

In the drive against excessive war profits, company excess profits taxes were increased from 72.4 per cent to 90 per cent. Post-war refunding provisions were included, but they were stricter than those in effect in Great Britain, so that in the United States the over-all rate was actually higher.

The net result of these economic measures was to keep prices at a far lower level, relatively speaking, than in the corresponding period of the First Great War. But retail sales were mounting higher than in the previous year, higher in fact than in the prosperous year 1929. Evidently, only the first skirmish against inflation had been won.

Republican Election Successes

The Congressional elections of November 1942 gave evidence of a general swing towards the Republican party in most sections of the country. The Republicans won 44 additional seats in the House of Representatives, thus coming within ten seats of controlling the lower house. They also won nine additional Senate seats, and displaced Democratic governors in the important States of New York, Michigan and California. Twenty-seven of the 48 States "went Republican." The Democrats retained their nominal control of Congress, but it was apparent that President Roosevelt would have to work closely

PACIFIC WAR COUNCIL MEETING IN WASHINGTON

During Mr. Churchill's visit to the United States in June 1942 a meeting of the Pacific War Council was held in the White House (June 25). Present were (left to right, below): Mr. G. S. Cox, representing New Zealand; Dr. T. V. Soong, Chinese Foreign Minister; Viscount Halifax, British Ambassador to the U.S.A.; Dr. Herbert V. Evatt, Australian Minister for External Affairs; Mr. Churchill; President Roosevelt; Mr. W. L. Mackenzie King, Prime Minister of Canada; Mr. Leighton McCarthy, Canadian Minister to the U.S.A.; Dr. Alex. Loudon, Netherlands Ambassador to the U.S.A.; and President Manuel Quezon, Philippine Commonwealth.

Photo, Keystone





LONDON'S SEARCHLIGHTS AND SOUND LOCATORS MANNED BY A.T.S.

By the beginning of 1942 there were searchlight batteries in the London Defence Area manned entirely by members of the A.T.S. ; this group on a searchlight site is operating a sound locator, forerunner of radio-location. On February 25, 1943, Sir James Grigg told the House of Commons that there were then 80 employments for women in the A.T.S. (compared with five in 1939), chief of these being in A.A. Command. *Direct colour photograph by "Illustrated"*



RAILWAY STATION, ALAMEIN

By Philip Bawcombe

Exhibited at the National Portrait Gallery, London, Summer 1943. Top painting reproduced by permission of the Government of South Africa. Bottom painting, Crown Copyright reserved



25-POUNDER GUN AND TEAM IN ACTION ON THE ALAMEIN FRONT

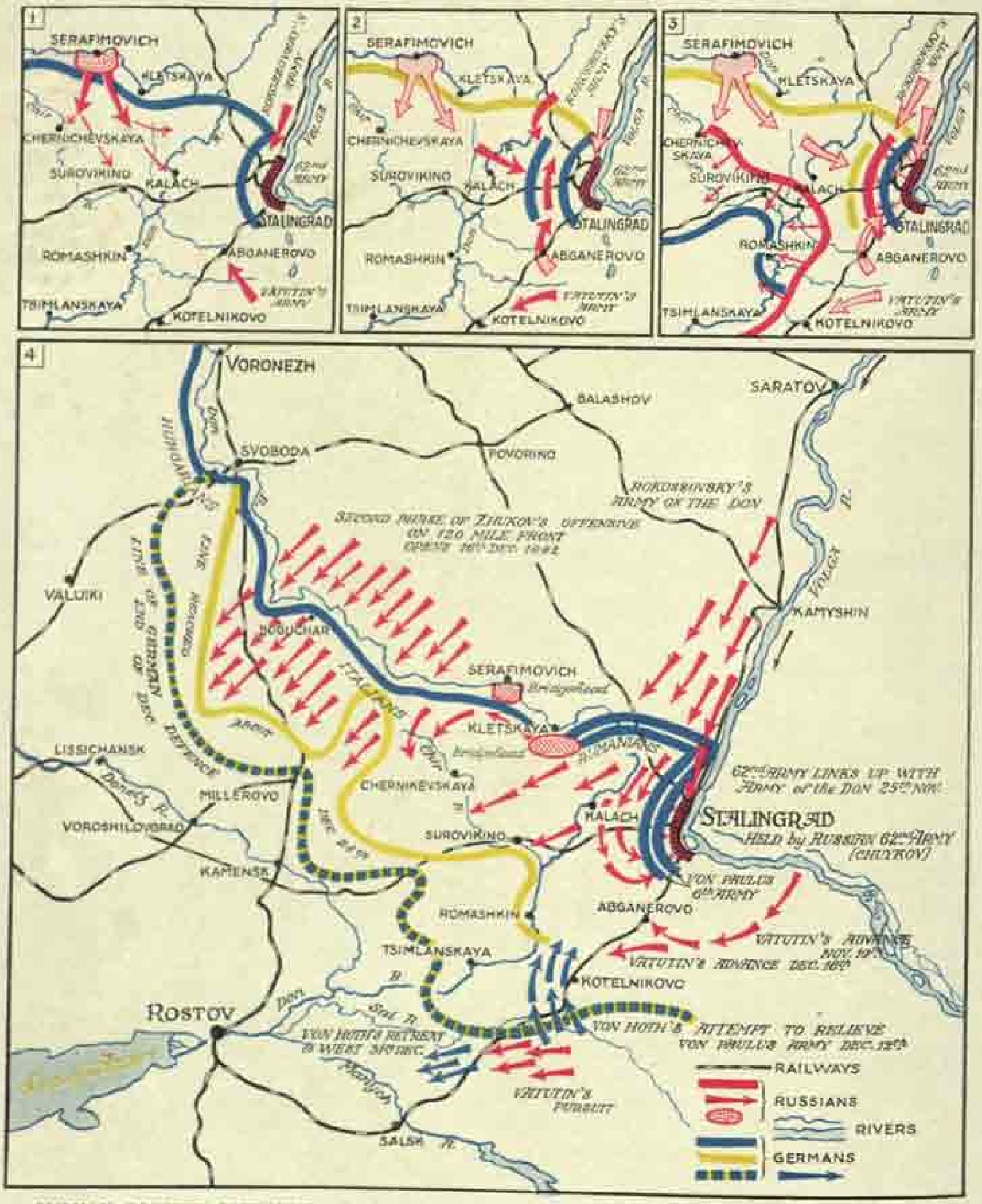
By J. Berry



GENERAL SIR BERNARD LAW MONTGOMERY, K.C.B., D.S.O.

Commander of the 8th Army from August 1942 to December 1943, when he was appointed C.-in-C. of the British Group of Armies being organized in the United Kingdom for the liberation of Europe. From the portrait by Capt Neville Lewis, official South African war artist, exhibited at the National Portrait Gallery, London, May 1943

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RUSSIAN COUNTER-OFFENSIVE AT STALINGRAD, NOVEMBER-DECEMBER 1942

Plans 1, 2 and 3 show the first phase of Marshal Zhukov's offensive designed to relieve Stalingrad, which opened on November 19. Plan 1 indicates the progress of operations up to November 24; Plan 2, succeeding movements until November 30; Plan 3, approximate positions on December 15. (Pink represents previous Russian and yellow previous German positions.) Plan 4, while covering the whole six weeks' fighting, chiefly illustrates the Russian advance during the second phase of the offensive, which began on December 16. Dates are necessarily approximate. Distance from Stalingrad to Rostov—240 miles. (See Chapter 252.)

with conservative Democrats from the Old South if his party was to maintain effective control of Congress. War issues were not affected by party, however, so that the prosecution of the war was in no way endangered.

There were two reasons commonly assigned for the trend towards Republican representation:

(1) This was an off-year election*, so that the results could have only a minimum effect on the prestige of the President. (Public opinion polls continued to show that a large majority of the American public—75 per cent at the close of the year—approved of the way Mr. Roosevelt was "handling his job as President today.")

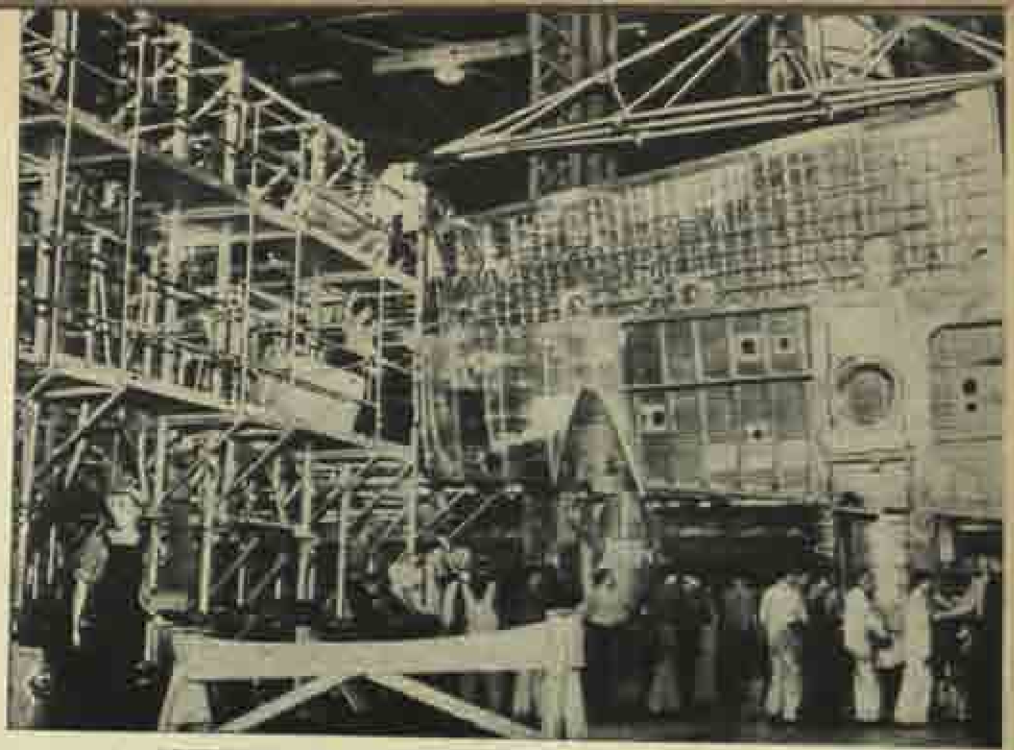
(2) There was undoubtedly some popular dissatisfaction with specific aspects of the war programme, such as the Government's rationing, price-control, labour and selective service policies. To some extent, however, the large Republican vote was a protest against Congress as well as against the Government itself. There was also a prevalent feeling that the American armed forces were far too slow in getting into action. (Had the North African invasion taken place three days before instead of three days after the election, the results might have been somewhat different.)

Less attention was paid by the Press to a third factor which was fully as important as the other two. In 1942 only 26,000,000 people cast their votes—about half as many as in the 1940 presidential election.

Causes of the Political Turn-over

In general, the highest percentage of votes was cast by the more settled, prosperous and conservative elements in the population. Young people and workers on the lower economic levels had been predominantly pro-Democratic in previous elections and many of these were disfranchised in 1942, voluntarily or otherwise. Of the several million men in the armed forces, only 28,000 voted under the cumbersome, last-minute, soldier-vote legislation passed by Congress. At least two or three million workers had migrated from non-industrial cities, small towns and farms to war centres in the previous year, and had been unable to fulfil the residential requirements for voting. And several million workers who had been unemployed in previous election years no longer felt any strong economic urge to go to the polls and vote for the Democrats who had given them a liberal programme of work relief and social security during the depression.

* An off-year election is one in which citizens return their representatives to Congress or to the State Legislature, though there is no concurrent election, respectively, for President or Governor.



ASSEMBLY OF A BOEING 'FLYING FORTRESS'

At the Seattle plant of the Boeing Aircraft Company, the massive inboard wing section of a B-17E—popularly known as the 'Flying Fortress'—is lifted by overhead crane from one of the jig lines, bound for the assembly floor, where it will be attached to the fuselage. In 1942 48,000 planes of various types rolled off American assembly lines.

Photo, Sport & General

The period of the "New Deal" was clearly over. But the 1942 elections were not a sound basis for predicting what would happen in 1944.

In the latter half of 1942 American public opinion was becoming stabilized on the issues of the war. The polls showed, first of all, a trend away from isolationism. Three-fourths of the people believed that the United States should try "to take an active part in world affairs" rather than "stay out of world affairs as much as we can" when the war was over. The tremendous interest in the speeches and statements of the former Republican presidential candidate, Mr. Wendell Willkie, when he returned from his trip round the world, was further evidence of this tendency.

Only two-thirds of the American people claimed to have a clear idea of what they were fighting for, and many of these would have been embarrassed if they were pressed for an answer. They were clearer about what they were fighting against; they could not have defined Fascism, most of them, but they knew that they were combating a set of war-making dictators. A great and increasing majority was opposed to any negotiated peace with Germany.

In the first part of 1942 most of the people had believed that Germany rather than Japan was the greater military menace to the United States. As the year wore on, however, this opinion was reversed. First, it became increasingly apparent with the battle of Stalingrad that the Russians were going to keep Germany busy in Europe for some time to come; second, the heavy casualties suffered by the U.S. Marines in the Solomons gave evidence that the defeat of Japan would be a long job.

The invasion of North Africa brought a sharp drop in the public's estimate of how long the war would last—from almost three to less than two years.

What the People Thought

Most Americans still gave Japan a year longer to survive than Germany; but once they thought America was on the way to Tokyo, even via North Africa and Berlin, the proportion of those who thought that as things stood the United Nations were losing the war dropped almost to zero.

On the home front the people continued to express majority approval of past "New Deal" reforms still in effect, as well as of all major legislative aspects of the war programme. They were willing to sacrifice more than they had been asked to do so far; for example, in paying taxes and submitting to more stringent labour controls. The seriousness of the war was driven home to more and more American families as the number of men in the armed forces increased.

In the latter half of 1942 the United States was getting her second wind after the shock of Pearl Harbour and the Philippines, and was settling down to the long pull necessary to win the war.







ROKOSSOVSKY'S ARMY OF THE DON STRUCK NORTH-WEST OF STALINGRAD

Taking the enemy by surprise, Red Army forces under Col.-Gen. K. K. Rokossovsky launched an offensive against the strongly fortified flank positions held by Rumanians north-west of Stalingrad on November 19, 1942. (Top) Snow-camouflaged Russians in full pursuit. (Centre) Sappers crawl in advance of the main forces, detecting and removing mines. (Bottom) Me-109s captured at Chir. *Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Pictorial Press; Planet News*

THE TIDE TURNS AT STALINGRAD: RED ARMY'S DECISIVE SIX WEEKS' OFFENSIVE

By mid-November 1942 the capture of Stalingrad appeared to the Germans to be imminent (see Chapter 244); actually the long-prepared Russian counter-offensive was about to be launched. Secrecy and surprise, the factors on which the Red Army relied, were achieved, and the sweeping success of the ensuing heavy fighting between November 19 and December 31 are here recorded. The battle-plans facing page 2495 should be consulted

Great as was the success of the German offensive of 1942, it had fallen far short of its aims. It had inflicted heavy defeats on Timoshenko's armies in the south, but had not annihilated them, as was proved by the amazing resistance of Stalingrad and the stubborn fighting in the Caucasus.

Furthermore, the campaign had not affected the bulk of the Russian armies in the centre and north which, except insofar as they had undertaken diversionary offensives, had had ample opportunities for recuperation and reorganization. Nor, as far as was known, had the new armies, which towards the end of 1941 Voroshilov and Budyonny had been commissioned to form and train, been called on for reinforcements.

Obviously the Germans in the great bulge their offensive had formed were in a thoroughly dangerous strategical situation if Russia's material resources enabled her to take the offensive in the coming winter. The changes that had been made in the German High Command suggested that all were not satisfied with the situation, and that there was a divergence of opinion as to the best course to pursue.

By mid-November there were practically only two courses open: either to withdraw to a shorter and less exposed winter position, or to continue the offensive in order to capture Stalingrad and the Terek valley in the Caucasus. Stalingrad would provide a strong hedgehog bastion and the Terek valley would deprive the Russians of an offensive base, while both would give shelter during the winter for troops in advanced positions. With his prestige at stake, no doubt, Hitler insisted on going on, though he may have consented to abandon costly attempts to take Stalingrad by assault in favour of reducing it by bombardment. It seems certain that he and his more sanguine advisers expected no immediate danger, either because their intelligence service was at fault or because the Russians had made no major attempt to relieve Stalingrad when its situation was desperately critical.

Naturally the Germans had established a defensive position to protect their flank along the Middle Don from Voronezh to the neighbourhood of Kletskaya and then across to the Volga. The latter section was elaborately fortified and strengthened by numerous concrete works and dug-in tanks. Confident in the strength of this flank, and no doubt desirous of using all available German troops for the assault on Stalingrad, the Germans entrusted its defence mainly to satellite troops—Rumanians in the most critical sector near Stalingrad, Italians behind the Middle Don and Hungarians in the Voronezh sector.

South of Stalingrad the Russians had been pressed back to the banks of the Volga, where they apparently had no room to deploy large forces and their communications across the river were difficult. This flank of the Stalingrad salient and the railway line from Kotelnikovo, therefore, seemed to the Germans to be adequately protected.



Col.-Gen. K. K. ROKOSSOVSKY
Commander of the Army of the Don. By order of Marshal Zhukov he forced a gap in the German Middle Don line on November 19, 1942, part of his forces then sweeping south-eastwards to link with Vatutin's troops and so effect the encirclement of the German 6th Army besieging Stalingrad—and anticipating its speedy fall.



Col.-Gen. NIKOLAI VATUTIN
Commander of the First Ukrainian Army. Simultaneously with Rokossovsky's move, his forces thrust northwards, taking Alguenerovo and pressing on to effect the isolation of Von Paulus from the south. After the encirclement of the 6th Army Vatutin routed Von Hoth's relief armies and compelled him to evacuate Kotelnikovo.

Photos, Pictorial Press; U.S.S.R. Official

At an early stage of the siege the Russians had concentrated a considerable force opposite the sector between the Don and the Volga, and had retained a small bridgehead over the Don in the neighbourhood of Kletskaya. Attacks made by these troops were, however, generally of a local character to secure tactical features and their intention seemed to be rather to reduce pressure on Stalingrad than a real attempt to force the Germans to abandon the siege. Their effect, in fact, seems to have been to strengthen the German conviction that the Russians lacked offensive power, and that there was no serious danger to be expected from this quarter.

How long-prepared Russian plans for a counter-offensive were has been revealed by Mr. Churchill, who has told us that on his visit to Moscow in August 1942 Marshal Stalin was full of confidence and explained his intentions. Even then it was sufficiently evident that if the German drive could be halted at Stalingrad and become deeply committed in the Caucasus an opportunity for a devastating counter-stroke would occur. That, however, implied a long period of defensive fighting—in places rigid, as at Voronezh and Stalingrad, in others more elastic, as in the Caucasus. The successful defence of Voronezh (see p. 2421)





ITALIANS ROUTED ON THE MIDDLE DON

The Germans entrusted the holding of their Voronezh–Volga line to satellite troops: in geographical order, Hungarians, Italians and Rumanians. (See Plan 4 facing p. 2495.) The Italians were routed in the second phase of the offensive in the Middle Don. (Above) A Soviet guardsman and an Italian tank he put out of action with one shot from his anti-tank rifle. (Right) Some of the 850 Italian prisoners taken.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official

protected the railways and Volga waterway essential to the concentration of armies for a counter offensive against the flank of the German bulge.

Hitler's avowed determination to capture Stalingrad provided an opportunity to complete plans in detail, and no doubt the timing of the counter-strokes was determined by weather conditions. In the late autumn the enemy's troops, exposed to the bitter winds of the steppes, would be suffering great hardships; his supply difficulties, when mud and snow began to affect mechanical vehicles and he had to depend more and more on railway communications, would be increased; and he would be unable to develop crushing air superiority with many of his airfields unusable.

On the other hand, before the Volga finally froze traffic across it would for some weeks become almost impossible owing to floating blocks of ice brought down by the current. Cut off from supplies and reinforcements, the city would then be in greater danger than ever. Already crossings were becoming difficult and this may have added to the German sense of security, since similar conditions on the Don made it reasonable to suppose that no large Russian force could attempt to cross the river until it froze.

Stalingrad's Increasing Danger

From the subsequent course of events preparations for the Russian offensive must have included the secret concentration of formidable armies at a number of points ready to exploit initial success; but the first blow had to be delivered at the German 6th Army under Von Paulus in front of Stalingrad, both because it was in the most vulnerable position and in order to relieve the city. Moreover, here more than anywhere else decisive results might be obtained by a comparatively short advance in which there was less fear of the attack losing its impetus through supply difficulties. The patience displayed by the Russian High Command and its refusal, in spite of the urgent need to relieve Stalingrad, to strike prematurely and before favourable conditions were fully established, is perhaps one of the most remarkable features in the evolution of its plans.

Having worked for strategical surprise by masking their intentions and by concealing the strength and disposition of their armies, the Russians had now to put the tactical parts of their strategical plan into effect.

Briefly the plan for the relief of Stalingrad provided for two operations. First, simultaneous attacks on the German flank defences north-west and south of the city, aiming at their penetration by forces which would encircle the besieging army and cut the two railways on which it depended for supplies. Second, the defeat of the attempts which the enemy would inevitably make to break the encircling ring from outside.

Plan for Relief of Stalingrad

To achieve their aim the first set of operations had to be carried through rapidly, and for that tactical surprise was essential. With the opposing armies in close contact on a comparatively short extent of front, to achieve any considerable measure of surprise was difficult, especially on the active sector between the Don and the Volga, where the main attack was bound to be delivered. Across the Don in the Kletskaya neighbourhood and to the south of the city, where conditions had recently been static, opportunity for surprise was greater, because the Russians appeared to have no room to develop a serious attack. It was, however, the opportunity for surprise that these sectors presented that the Russians planned to exploit.

Up-stream from their small Kletskaya bridgehead they secretly established a new crossing near Serafimovich, and south of Stalingrad they greatly reinforced their forces holding the right bank of the Volga without the enemy's knowledge. In addition, armies were assembled east of the Don ready to



ENORMOUS BOOTY TAKEN BY THE RED ARMY

By the end of 1942, so spectacular had been the success of the first phase of their offensive, the Russians were able to claim the relief of Stalingrad, 95,000 enemy killed and 72,400 taken prisoner, and vast supplies of war material captured. (Top) Some of the 10,496 lorries and stacks of stores which formed part of the booty. (Bottom) Abandoned guns and miscellaneous equipment litter the snow-covered battlefield. *Photos, "News Chronicle"*

come into action when the river froze and as the situation developed. Of these much more will be heard later, but it should be noted at this stage that they formed an essential element in the plan for frustrating enemy attempts to rescue Von Paulus's army when its encirclement had been achieved.

An official Russian war correspondent, Mikhail Bragin, vividly described the forbidding conditions in which the Red Army prepared to take the offensive:

> The Red Army prepared to force the Don. The enemy bank commanded the Soviet side, and all work had therefore to be done at night only. The Don began to freeze. It was impossible to use ferries, dangerous to cross the thin ice, and very difficult to build bridges.
>
> The left bank is covered with low undergrowth and abounds in lakes and swamps. Shifting sands lie to the north. Vehicles got stuck in the sand and swamps. Horses and men grew exhausted. It proved necessary to build miles and miles of bridges. Since the surrounding steppes were woodless, material had to be brought from afar. Dozens of crossings were built to deceive the enemy. Thousands of road-builders, sappers and engineers worked without respite in the autumn rain and bitter wind. During the last weeks before the offensive, mound after mound, gully after gully, was captured from the enemy in local operations.
>
> The assembly of large forces, especially of cavalry, could not be hidden. The enemy hurled hundreds of planes against the Soviet concentrations and the roads which supplied the operation. Tanks and horses were hidden in gullies and scrub.
>
> On the morning of November 19, while a fog hung over the Don, the break-through began. . . .

Though Marshal Zhukov, who was co-ordinating the whole series of operations, launched his offensive on November 19 (*see* Plans 1–3, facing p. 2495), it was not till November 22 that Moscow announced that the Red Army had attacked successfully north-west and south of Stalingrad and, advancing 40 miles, had cut both railways leading to the city. The capture of Kalach with immense quantities of supplies of all sorts was claimed. The speed with which this success was accomplished clearly indicated that there had been an armoured break-through on both flanks of the Germans, and that surprise had been achieved.

The thrust that reached Kalach appears to have started from the new bridgehead at Serafimovich and struck right across the loop of the Don where it would not have encountered much opposition. The thrust from the south under Col.-Gen. Vatutin, which captured Abganerovo on the Kotelnikovo railway, may have owed its success to the Germans, unsuspicious of danger, having weakened their forces there. It is not improbable that some troops may have been withdrawn to reinforce the Caucasus front for the Nalchik offensive or in order to relieve congestion on the line of communication which ran through Rostov, and which had to serve both the Caucasus front and the southern wing of Von Paulus's army.

Although the encircling thrusts which cut the German communications achieved the most sensational results, yet it was the main attack made by Col.-Gen. K. K. Rokossovsky's Army of the Don on the enemy's fortified flank positions north of the city, held mainly by Rumanians, that delivered the most crushing blow. Artillery, under Col.-Gen. Voronov's command, played an immense part. As was to be expected, the Germans launched counter-attacks continuously; but with many of their troops engaged in the envelopment of Stalingrad and with their communications disrupted it is evident that they were unable to regroup their formations for a well co-ordinated effort.

German Counter-Attacks

November 25 was a red-letter day, for on that date Rokossovsky's troops



FLOUR FROM GERMANY FED VATUTIN'S FORCES

Swastika and eagle brand indicates the origin of this sack of flour (left), part of dozens of trainloads of enemy food, equipment and armour captured by the First Ukrainian Army at Abganerovo, a welcome addition to Soviet supplies. (Right) Through clouds of smoke from exploding ammunition and dust from devastated property Vatutin's men charge near Verkhne Kumskaya.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Soviet Newsreels

reached the northern outskirts of Stalingrad and joined hands with Chuykov's 62nd Army, which for so long had brilliantly held the city whose relief thus became an accomplished fact.

A Soviet war correspondent thus described the dramatic scene:

At 1 p.m. on November 24 all the radio stations operating with Red Army units on the Stalingrad front heard a loud "Hurrah!" The shouting lasted for ten minutes. Then several voices on various wave-lengths reported simultaneously that our forces advancing from the north along the Volga had joined up with the northern group of the defenders of Stalingrad [under Colonel Gorokhov] in the village of Lotoshanka. . . .

When the first Red Army men with their banners appeared in the distance, the men on the northern outskirts of Stalingrad could not contain themselves any longer. They rushed at the retreating enemy, fought their way forward with bayonets, rifle butts and grenades, caught up with the scouts, and in company with them greeted their comrades advancing from the north, who had already occupied Lotoshanka. . . .

Then a radio call summoned the men to the offensive. The Red Army groups from north and south went into action. At 2 p.m., fighting in company, they occupied heights west of Lotoshanka. A few days later they took part in the heated battles in the northern sector of Stalingrad and helped to recapture several streets in the workers' settlement near the big tractor works.

Heavy fighting, however, continued, and it was not till the beginning of December that the encircling ring was completed and consolidated. Even then the battle of encirclement was not over, for the Russians continued to press the enemy into an ever-diminishing space, depriving him of landing grounds and wearing down his still formidable strength. Deeply dug in and holding an area as large as an average English county, the Germans were capable of offering stubborn resistance, and to the outside world it seemed probable that they had a good chance of holding out till rescued, provided that their supplies of food and munitions did not run short. With their supply lines cut, it was, however, evident that they would have to depend on their advanced depots and what could reach them by air. It was soon apparent that their situation was in this respect critical, for at an early stage the Germans began to use masses of transport planes to bring in supplies, in spite of the heavy toll the Red Air Force took of them. Until the Russians, closing in, were able to bring landing grounds under artillery fire, considerable quantities of supplies, no doubt, were brought in by this means, while wounded men, and officers and staffs of shattered formations which had become surplus, were removed in the return flights, thus reducing the number of useless mouths.

German Supply Lines Severed

In this opening phase of the offensive the Germans had already suffered a disastrous defeat. Not only was the besieging army now besieged—it had suffered terrible losses. By the end of the year the Russians were able to claim that in this phase alone eight infantry, one cavalry and one tank divisions of the Rumanian contingent had been routed, as well as three German infantry and one tank divisions, while in addition three other German divisions had suffered heavily. Enemy killed were estimated at 95,000, while 72,400 prisoners had been taken. Material captured or destroyed was enormous: 960 planes, 2,340 tanks, 3,166 guns, 10,496 lorries, together with huge numbers of smaller weapons and immense quantities of stores. The number of weapons and vehicles captured greatly exceeded those destroyed—no doubt this was in part due to the rapid capture of railhead depots and repair shops where personnel would mainly be administrative.

Mention should be made here of the brilliant part played by the Red Army reconnaissance units.

Brilliant Red Army Reconnaissance

When General Dimitriu, commander of the 20th Rumanian Infantry Division, was being interrogated as a prisoner of war, he was shown a map prepared by the Red Army before the offensive and asked to correct any errors in the charting of the disposition of his own division at that time. He answered, astounded, that the Soviet map was more exact than even the operational map prepared by his own headquarters!

Although Von Paulus's army in Stalingrad was securely trapped and had little offensive power, the Russians were bound to take precautions against counter-attacks from outside the ring. Such attacks were almost certain to develop along the two railway lines, one on each side of the lower Don, leading to Stalingrad, and measures were taken at once to gain ground along them. The heaviest attack might be expected along the railway north of the Don, since reserves from the comparatively quiet front in the north could concentrate on it, and there were good lateral communications. On the other hand, a counter-attack delivered along the southern railway from Kotelnikovo would not have the Don to cross and could strike at the ring round Stalingrad where it was weakest. When, therefore, encirclement was complete Vatutin's army appears to have been mainly employed in gaining ground by pressing south in the direction of Kotelnikovo, which seemed likely to become a concentration centre for a relieving force. Vatutin's advance was, however, held up and counter-attacked before it reached Kotelnikovo.

Such was the general situation when, on December 16, Zhukov opened the second phase of the offensive by forcing the crossing of the Middle Don on a front of some 60 miles, on each side of

Boguchar (see Plan 4, facing p. 2495). The Italian troops holding the line of the river were overrun and the attack swept forward rapidly, reaching the line of the Voronezh–Rostov railway in less than a week. German divisions rushed up from reserve to stop the Italian rout also became involved in the disaster. Spreading to its left, this new offensive joined hands with Rokossovsky's troops who had been operating westwards from the Kletskaya–Kalach front against the Germans within the loop of the Don. A major effect of this well-timed and amazingly successful operation was to frustrate any intention the Germans may have had of relieving Von Paulus by a counter-stroke along the railway north of the Don. The Germans had again been surprised, partly owing to the skilful concealment of Russian preparations, and partly because they believed that the Don was





DESPERATE GERMAN RETREAT
Part of the long and detailed planning of the Russian campaign was the provision of tanks and vehicles specially designed for snow conditions. The enemy were not so well equipped: they employed even primitive horse-drawn sledges (above) in their demoralized retreat. Symbolic of their desperation is this study (left) of the occupant of an advanced enemy observation post anxiously awaiting first signs of the advancing Red forces. *Photos, Keystone*

still not sufficiently frozen to admit a crossing. The rapidity of the Russian advance, astonishing under winter conditions, was due to the adoption of a new tactical technique. Centres of resistance were by-passed by armoured thrusts and left to be dealt with by mopping-up troops. This manoeuvre was facilitated by the fact that Russian tanks and other mechanized vehicles had been specially designed for snow conditions, and were not dependent on roads.

By the end of the year as a result of this second offensive the Germans had lost their hold on almost the whole of the area within the bend of the Don, and were chiefly concerned in holding the line of the Donetz and its railway crossings at Voroshilovgrad, Kamensk and elsewhere. They probably still hoped



STALINGRAD'S DEFENDERS JOIN HANDS WITH THE LIBERATORS OF THE CITY

On November 25, 1942, part of Col.-Gen. Rokossovsky's forces, advancing down the west bank of the Volga, made contact with outposts of Lieut.-Gen. V. I. Chuykov's 62nd Army which had supported the siege of Stalingrad alone; above, the defenders and liberators of the city meet.

Photo, Soviet Newsreel

were driven back for some 30 miles. But though the German armoured force had great penetrative power, the infantry support to it was insufficient to hold the sides of the corridor created. The Russians, drawing back to a flank, were therefore able to bring the drive to a standstill by threatening its communications and to counter-attack in turn.

This manoeuvre was completely successful and after some bitter fighting it soon became evident that the relief attempt had proved a disastrous failure.

By the end of the year Von Hoth was in full retreat, having lost some 2,000 men killed and over 5,000 prisoners together with much material, which included over 300 planes, 550 tanks and 550 guns. He was not even able to hold Kotelnikovo, but retreated westward, fighting dogged rearguard actions with the pursuing Russians. (*See* Plan 4, facing p. 2495.)

Von Paulus's army of 22 divisions was thus left without any hope of immediate relief. It, however, constituted a formidable force strongly entrenched, and could not be easily annihilated. Cut off from supplies and having lost many of its advanced depots, the only question was whether it could hold out under heavy pressure until the Germans could assemble a new and stronger relieving army. This seemed improbable because the disaster they had suffered at Kotelnikovo had exposed the flank and communications of their Caucasus army, and that danger had to be met before another relief attempt could be staged.

By holding out, however, Von Paulus's army would serve the double purpose of containing the Russian armies investing it and, equally important, it would continue to block the railways which ran through Stalingrad and which were of vital importance to the further development of the Russian offensive.

Russian Skill and Foresight

Nevertheless the encirclement of Von Paulus and the defeat of the relief attempt gave convincing proof of the skill and foresight with which the Russian operations had been planned. In contrast the Germans had made one blunder after another. Taken by itself, Von Hoth's Kotelnikovo thrust was undoubtedly formidable and well executed, but it was open to criticism that it should not have been launched until sufficient force had been assembled to make success almost a certainty. Obviously failure would worsen the situation, for it would inevitably set back to a dangerous extent the date by which any further relief attempt could be made. Von Manstein may have relied on the co-operation of the German troops on the other side of the Don, but if he did the Russian Middle Don offensive made such co-operation impracticable.

The Russians having with such astonishing success gained their first objective, the stage was set for the full development of the winter campaign of 1942-43, the course of which will be followed in later Chapters.

eventually to stage a counter-stroke to relieve Von Paulus from this front, but for the time being they had no reserve power after the mauling they had received. Five German infantry and one tank divisions had been routed in addition to six Italian and two Rumanian divisions. They had lost some 60,000 men killed and a similar number of prisoners. War material captured or destroyed included some 500 planes, 350 tanks, over 2,000 guns and 8,000 lorries. Supply depots stocked for the winter were perhaps an even more important part of the booty captured, for they must have greatly eased Russian supply problems.

To turn now to the development of the situation south of Stalingrad where, as recorded above, part of Vatutin's army had been operating southwards towards Kotelnikovo.

Situation South of Stalingrad

It was in that region that a German counter-offensive to reopen communication with Von Paulus's beleaguered army could most rapidly be mounted on account of its proximity to the offensive front in the Caucasus, where formations were certain to be in reserve, and it was in that direction that Von Paulus would probably retreat if he decided to attempt to cut his way out.

By December 12 Von Manstein had assembled about Kotelnikovo a powerful striking force under Von Hoth, consisting of at least three armoured and three motorized infantry divisions, and an attempt to break through to Stalingrad was launched. At first it met with considerable success and the Russians



GUNS ON THE OUTSKIRTS POUNDED ENEMY STRONGPOINTS

The junction of forces effected, a combined assault on remaining enemy positions began, and after several days' fierce fighting the Red Army recaptured several streets in the workers' settlement in the north of the city. Above, a Red Army gun pounds enemy blockhouses.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official

THE RUSSIAN HOME FRONT IN 1942

Russia's vital military successes in 1942 would have been impossible if the Red Army had not had the backing of the tremendous achievements in organization and re-organization effected by Soviet industry, and made possible only by the courage and tenacity of the whole Russian people. Mr. Andrew Rothstein, who contributes this review of internal events in the U.S.S.R., is the London correspondent of the official Soviet news agency

In the political field the year began with a document characterizing the implacable determination of the Soviet people to keep a strict account of the atrocities committed by the Nazis on Soviet soil, and to exact full retribution from the perpetrators on the principle of "blood for blood and death for death." This was the Note of M. Molotov to all Governments describing such atrocities in detail (January 6). It was the subject immediately of countless meetings all over the U.S.S.R. On April 27 it was followed up by a further Note expanding the terrible account, while on October 14 M. Molotov replied to a collective protest against similar atrocities from a number of the smaller Allies, reiterating the Soviet determination to help them to exact justice, and suggesting the immediate trial of leading Nazi war criminals in Allied hands. A statement from the Soviet Information Bureau, on December 19, recorded Nazi atrocities against Soviet Jews. On November 3, the Soviet Government had established an Extraordinary State Commission to record and verify Nazi atrocities. Its Chairman was M. Shvernik, Secretary of the Central Council of Trade Unions, a leading member was Metropolitan Nikolai of Kiev and Galicia, and among other well-known people included on it were the Chief Surgeon of the Red Army, M. Burdenko, and the writer Alexei Tolstoy.

Stalin made a number of important pronouncements during the year. In his Order of the Day on the 24th Anniversary of the Red Army (February 23) he dealt with the loss of initiative by the German Army after eight months of war, set forth the sources of strength of the Red Army, and exposed the lying enemy propaganda about the alleged purpose of the Red Army to exterminate the German people or destroy the German State, underlining that it was "trained in the spirit of racial equality and respect for the rights of other peoples." In his Order of the Day for May 1 the Premier exposed the German claims to be nationalists fighting for the independence of their country, to be socialists fighting against plutocrats, and to be defenders of European culture. Laying stress on the internal unity and stronger international connexions of the Soviet people, Stalin pointed out the considerable battle experience of the Red Army and the disappearance of "complacency and heedlessness" towards the enemy. On October 3, replying to questions put by a press correspondent, Stalin declared that the question of the Second Front was of "first-rate importance." Compared with the aid which the Soviet Union was giving the Allies by drawing upon itself the main forces of the enemy, Allied aid to the Soviet Union had been "little effective" so far. To amplify and improve it only one thing was needed—"that the Allies fulfil their obligations completely and on time."

Stalin on the Red Army



GREAT BRITAIN TO RUSSIA

This poster, simple and direct in the message it carries, was one of many that went to the Soviet Union with the aeroplanes, munitions, and other war supplies Russia received under Lease-Lend. "On to Victory! We are with you!" is the meaning of the wording

Speaking at a meeting, on November 6, to celebrate the 25th Anniversary of the Soviet Revolution of 1917, Stalin gave an extensive review of the year's developments in the rear and at the front. He drew a striking contrast between the numbers of divisions which the Russian army had to face in 1914-18 and those the Red Army was fighting in the present war—127 German and satellite divisions in the war of 1914-18, 240 divisions in this war. In this speech Stalin formulated his view of the programme of the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition:

Anglo-Soviet-American Coalition

"The abolition of racial exclusiveness; the equality of nations and the inviolability of their territories; the liberation of the enslaved nations and the restoration of their sovereign rights; the right of every nation to arrange its affairs as it wishes; economic aid to the nations that have suffered, and assistance to them in achieving their material welfare; the restoration of democratic liberties; the destruction of the Hitlerite régime."

Stalin expanded the last point as meaning the destruction of the Hitlerite state and its inspirers, of Hitler's army and its leaders, and of the hated "New Order in Europe." In an Order of the Day on November 7 he announced that the Red Army had put out of action over eight million enemy men and officers.

On November 13 Stalin replied to further questions from a press correspondent, welcoming the Allied campaign in Africa as a demonstration that the Anglo-American leaders were "first-rate organizers," and that initiative had passed into the hands of the Allies, and as creating the pre-requisites for the organization of a Second Front in Europe, nearer to Germany.

Two other political events of great importance may be noted. One was a declaration by 57 German anti-Fascist pre-1939 refugees—writers, former members of the Reichstag, and trade union leaders—calling on the German people to fight the Hitler régime (February 1); which was followed by the first conference of German N.C.O. prisoners of war. The other (October 9) was an Edict of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, abolishing military commissars

and political instructors as separate ranks in the Red Army, on the ground that the Soviet forces had attained political maturity, and the co-ordination of political work henceforth under single command. The former commissars, most of them experienced in battle, were given suitable military rank.

Diplomatic activity during 1942 included the announcement on January 2 that, following up the Stalin-Sikorski conversations in December 1941, the Soviet Government had granted a loan of 100 million roubles to Poland to assist Polish citizens living in the U.S.S.R. Eighteen days later, the Treaty between Britain, the U.S.S.R., and Iran (Persia) was signed in Teheran, granting the Allies unrestricted communication rights through Iran, and guaranteeing the latter's integrity, independence and sovereignty. It was the occasion for widespread demonstrations throughout the U.S.S.R. of friendship with Iran.

Diplomatic Activity

On March 20 a protocol was signed with Japan extending for one year the existing Fisheries Convention between the two countries, but reducing the number of fishing areas leased to the Japanese from 19 to 14, and increasing the rental by 20 per cent. On April 13, the newspaper Pravda had occasion to warn Japanese militarists against talk of expansion at Soviet expense.

But the principal diplomatic events of the year, which gave immense encouragement and increased confidence to the Soviet people in their heavy trials, were the series of agreements with the Allies—the Anglo-Soviet Treaty of London, concluded on May 26 and published on June 12 (ratified by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet on June 18), the subsequent agreement with the U.S.A. on mutual aid (published on June 13), the Anglo-Soviet financial agreement of June 27 extending war credits to the U.S.S.R. by £25 millions on a basis of reciprocity (published June 30), and the communiqué of August 17, announcing that Mr. Churchill had visited Moscow and had had cordial and far-reaching conversations with M. Stalin between the 12th and the 15th.



LEADERS OF BRITAIN AND SOVIET RUSSIA MEET

Mr. Churchill is here seen with Premier Stalin at the Kremlin during the British Prime Minister's visit to Moscow, August 12–15, 1942. (Below) The Red Guard of Moscow, who in the autumn of 1941 swore to 'Stop Hitler or Die!', march past Mr. Churchill and Mr. Averell Harriman, President Roosevelt's representative at the Conference, during which 'decisions were taken covering the field of the war against Hitlerite Germany.' On Mr. Churchill's right is M. Molotov, Foreign Commissar.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official

On September 28 a joint communiqué of the Soviet Government and the French National Committee was issued, Russia recognizing Fighting France as "the whole of the citizens and territories of France who do not accept the capitulation and who by all means at their disposal contribute, wherever they may be, to the liberation of France through the common victory of the Allies." It recognized the National Committee as "the directing instrument of Fighting France, the only one qualified to organize the participation in the war of French citizens and territories, and to represent in respect of the Government of the U.S.S.R. French interests, especially as they are affected by the pursuit of the war."

In the economic field the year saw a number of important measures adopted further to mobilize the immense resources of the U.S.S.R. for the crushing of the invader. During the second half of January 200,000 boys of 16 and 17 and girls from 15 to 18 entered factory training schools for a six months' course of preparation for industry. But this could not fill the requirements of the thousands of Soviet factories saved by evacuation from the invader, already existing in the rear or being built to answer the voracious demands of the war.

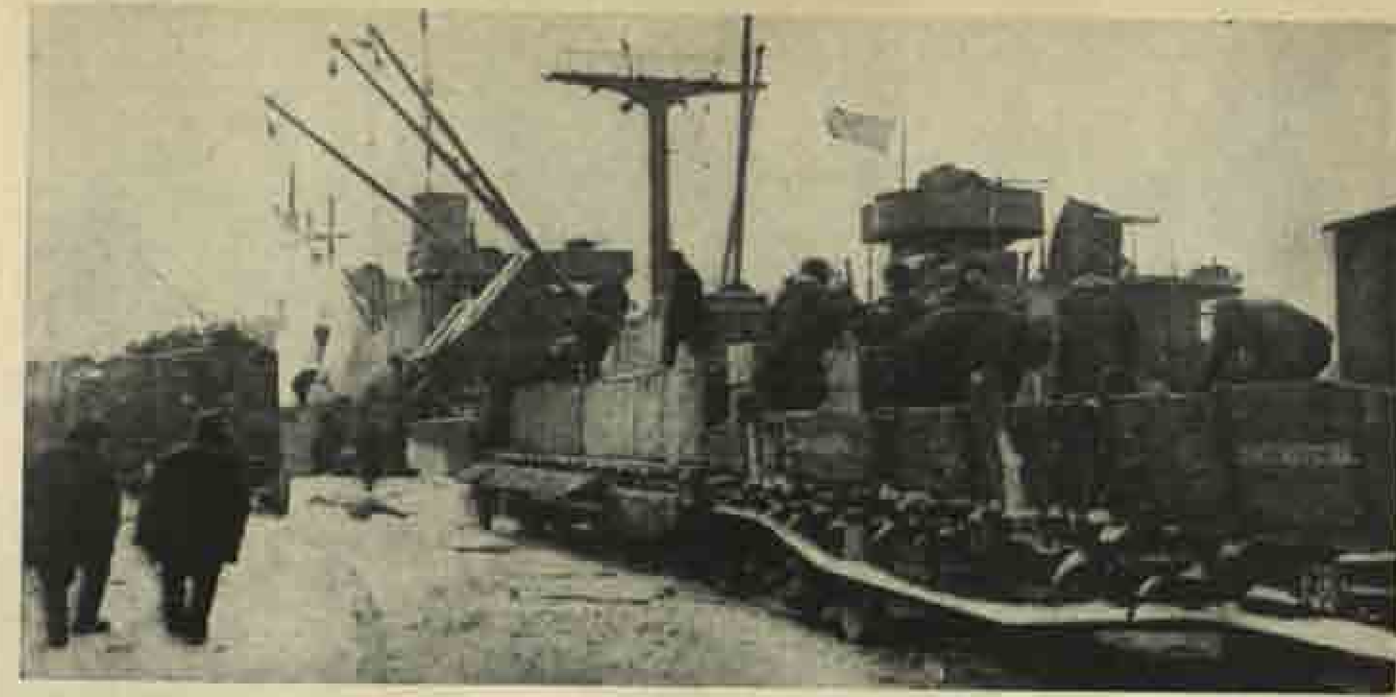
Accordingly, an Edict of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet was made on February 13, mobilizing the able-bodied urban population (men between 16 and 55, and women between 16 and 45, not already employed in State organizations or factories, or nursing mothers, or mothers with children under 8, or students). By this means large forces were released for building or actual work in the aircraft, tank, armaments, engineering, chemical, fuel and other war industries. Great numbers of women were already busy in war industry, having voluntarily gone to take the places of their menfolk.

Full Adult Mobilization

On April 14 a War Loan subscription of ten milliard roubles was opened. The Central Council of Trade Unions appealed to its members to subscribe three or four weeks' earnings, and collective farms and other organizations vied with each other in similar drives. By April 23 the Loan had been over-subscribed.

The minimum number of working days to be spent by collective farmers on the *collective* land of their undertaking was





MURMANSK WAS A VITAL DISTRIBUTION CENTRE

Lease-Lend arms and ammunition being loaded on to trains at Murmansk ready for transport to the Russian front. These are some of the 88 per cent of British and American supplies which Mr. A. V. Alexander, First Lord of the Admiralty, stated on March 7, 1944, were delivered to Russia in spite of all the enemy's attempts to destroy the convoys.

Photo, Pictorial Press

increased by an Edict of April 17, as this previous minimum laid down in 1939 was already being exceeded by the large majority. The number of days stipulated varied from 100 in European Russia to 150 in the cotton growing districts. Local authorities were enjoined to mobilize the able-bodied population of the towns not engaged in industry, such as clerical workers, students and housewives, to help in the spring sowing. Hundreds of thousands responded, as they did later for harvesting: figures published on August 15 showed 75,000 in the Tula region, 100,000 in the Gorki region, 325,000 in the Asiatic Republic of Kazakhstan, etc.

Big irrigation works were undertaken with the co-operation of the population in Asia, rendering possible extensive increases in agricultural output. Thus, between February 19 and April 19 tens of thousands of Tashkent citizens and collective farmers from adjacent regions took part in digging a 30-mile canal of great economic importance, with a dam 12 miles from Tashkent. On September 12 a canal of similar length was opened at Stalinabad, the capital of Tadjikistan, which increased arable land in the region by 100,000 acres. Fifty thousand collective farmers of Tadjikistan and Uzbekistan took part in this construction work.

Irrigation Schemes in Asia

By a special Decree issued on May 6 Workers' Supply Departments were established in all factories, to make possible better food production and more planned distribution of rations (which in the Soviet Union were differential, distinguishing between workers in heavy and light industry, clerical workers, dependants, etc.). This system stimulated effort by the authorities to develop local food industries: on August 6 the Deputy People's Commissar for Home Trade stated that the proportion of locally produced food in the national turnover was over 31 per cent in the first half of 1942, against under 25 per cent a year before. It also stimulated the campaign for allotments which the Central Council of Trade Unions had made its special



'PEOPLE'S ACTRESS' ENTERTAINS THE SOVIET NAVY

Men of the Red Fleet ashore after a spell of active duty can count on being provided with cultural entertainment. Here is a group of Russian sailors listening to a performance by Korchagina Alexandrovskaya, who enjoys the Soviet title of honour 'People's Actress,' during a period in port after being in action in the Baltic.

Photo, Planet News







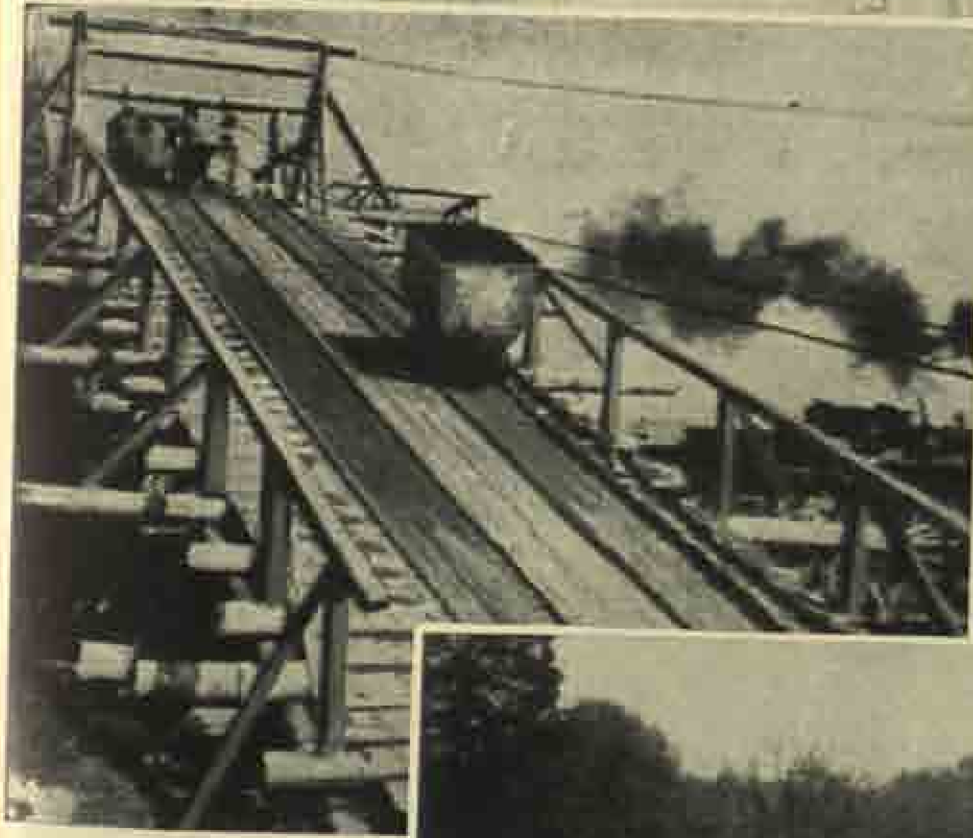


PEOPLE OF LENINGRAD DEFY THE BESIEGERS

1. Young orphans of the siege of Leningrad, wards of the city, take a walk in the sun during a lull in the bombing and shelling. The tower in the background is that of the old Admiralty building. 2. In the winter of 1941–42, when all approach to Leningrad by land was cut off by the enemy, contact with the city was maintained across the ice over Lake Ladoga; a night convoy of lorries is here seen on the ice highway which was organized, with traffic lights, service stations and bomb shelters. 3. German prisoners—the only Germans to enter Leningrad—parade along 25th October Prospekt, the main street of the city. 4. Before the cathedral of St. Isaac, A.A. guns go into action.

Photos, Pictorial Press











ACTIVITY RETURNS TO LIBERATED RUSSIA

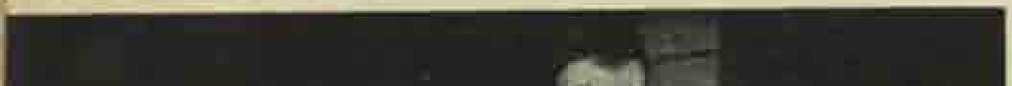
1. A joyous scene as the inhabitants of Aragashi come out to welcome the soldiers of the Red Army who liberated them in the spring of 1942. 2. Coal comes up from the Donetz mines again: as control of the Donetz Basin was regained, the coal workings were reopened, and truck loads of coal began coming to the surface for use in Soviet industry. 3. Soldiers of the Red Army restore to working condition a school in the Smolensk region damaged by the enemy during the German occupation. 4. The kind of improvised hut which served as home for collective farmers returning to their liberated villages until the new log houses (5) provided for them by the Soviet Government could be built.



SOVIET RUSSIA'S INDUSTRIAL FRONT

A Stakhanovite brigade in an aircraft factory is here seen assembling fighters. By making foremen responsible for the supply of necessary small tools to the other workers, and organizing work co-operatively, these brigades have been able in some cases to increase output fivefold. The originator of the method was Stakhanov, a worker in the Donetz coal basin, where output had been low before his innovations were introduced. (Below) Night work in a Moscow shell factory, where every trolley load adds another 36 to the stack of cases waiting to be filled.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official and Pictorial Press



concern: at the beginning of September it was calculated that five million people were cultivating allotments covering one and a quarter million acres.

In response to a national campaign by collective farmers, who were sowing extra areas over and above their planned arable in aid of the Red Army, the Soviet Government on July 17 established a special Defence Grain Fund of two and a quarter million tons.

The sum total of these efforts was seen on the occasion of the revolutionary anniversary (November 5), when it was announced that the increase in the sown area in 1942, notwithstanding all the wartime shortages of labour and material, and the loss of the best agricultural districts, was greater by five and a quarter million acres than in any of the previous ten years.

Symbolic of the rapid expansion of war industry during the year was the lighting on Constitution Day (December 5) of a new huge blast furnace at Magnitogorsk, one of the largest in the U.S.S.R., and constructed entirely of Soviet materials.

These results, which were the essential condition for the Red Army victories in the first and last quarters of the year, were made possible only by a wave of mass voluntary effort such as even the Soviet Union had never before seen. It is no exaggeration to say that, next to the great achievements of the Red Army, it was these spontaneous campaigns which were the main content of Soviet life during the year. Every political event, every victory or reverse of the Red Army, the feeling of responsibility of the individual Soviet citizen for the obvious shortcomings and equally obvious potentialities of the country's economic resources, were called upon to encourage and extend these campaigns.

On January 1 a million workers, collective farmers and technicians of the Urals signed New Year Greetings to Stalin pledging various increases in their output. On July 25, in a further letter, 1,275,000 Urals people reported the fulfilment of their pledge, the doubling and trebling of their output of arms and munitions, and promised to increase output by a further 150 per cent in the second half of 1942.

Arms Output Trebled

Very early in the year (January 5) Pravda published one of a series of editorials calling on the people to fight against wartime bureaucracy which rendered possible dirty restaurants and canteens, neglected fuel deliveries, deterioration of trams and other public services, etc., on the plea that "there's a war on." This series brought very noticeable results during the year.

The youth of the Stalin Auto Works at Moscow appealed on January 15 to young workers all over the Union to celebrate Red Army Day on February 23 with new production records; and themselves undertook to surpass their own plan, to produce by extra work special arms sufficient to equip four divisions, and other equipment sufficient for three divisions, to double the number of "200 per centers," etc.

On March 10 the workers of a Saratov factory proposed that every works should create its own "food base," providing vegetables for the factory canteen, for the kindergarten and crèche, and for the families of men called to the forces. March 26 saw the first group of "1,000 per centers" appear in the Urals, and the publicity given to their achievements evoked emulation all over





MOSCOW IN ITS SECOND YEAR OF WAR

Nazi warplanes, some very much damaged, and other trophies of war captured by the Russians, are here seen on show at the Gorky Central Park of Culture and Rest, Moscow. A Moscow Mounted Militia patrol (left) passes the Kremlin on its return from duty. Education, including higher education, goes on in Russia in spite of all wartime difficulties: students of Lomonosov State University, Moscow (below) begin the new session, 1942.

Photos, U.S.S.R. Official; Planet News; Pictorial Press



the U.S.S.R. Pravda reported (April 25) that the Krupskaya Collective Farm, in the Krasnodar territory, after completing the sowing of early crops, had sown 30 acres of wheat in addition for the Defence Fund and for the farmers in the invaded districts; and were appealing to collective farmers in other regions to follow their example.

Beginning with the response of the Kirov Works (evacuated from Leningrad to the Urals) to Stalin's May Day message, by a pledge to produce five per



cent more than their May plan of tank and tank engine production; and with a similar response from a Siberian metallurgical combine, an aircraft works and an engineering factory (May 10 and 11), a great wave of Socialist emulation rose up all over the country, producing bigger and bigger results as the year went on. It may be mentioned that the Kirov workers increased their output by 17 per cent, instead of the promised five per cent, that month. By the end of the year the Government departments in all the basic war industries were able to announce month by month the overfulfilling of output programmes.

The leading role in this emulation was played by the trade unions. At the same time the Government repeatedly recognized the importance of individual achievements by such rewards as the decoration of 607 workers in the war factories of besieged Leningrad (January 13), or the bestowal of hundreds of decorations on railwaymen on August 2, Railway Transport Day.

It remains to record that Soviet cultural life continued throughout the year with its characteristic intensity, even though its scope was limited by war conditions. Outstanding events were the award of many scores of valuable Stalin Prizes to distinguished workers in the arts and sciences (January 8); the decoration of Maria Shchegoleva, curator of the Tolstoy Museum at Yasnaya Polyana, for her devoted work in preserving the heritage of the great writer during Nazi occupation; the production in mid-February of the remarkable film, "The Defeat of the Germans before Moscow," which was subsequently shown abroad; the first performance of Shostakovich's Seventh ("Leningrad") Symphony (March 5, at Kuibyshev); the transference of scores of Soviet theatres from the invaded districts to the Asiatic Republics, where they were able to introduce new themes and new treatments to the theatre-going public (for example, the State Jewish Theatre of Belorussia, at Novosibirsk; or the Ukrainian "Franko" Theatre, which presented Schiller's "William Tell" in Kazakhstan); the general meeting of the Academy of Sciences at Sverdlovsk (May 2 to 7), which discussed the planning of scientific research for 1942 and the special wartime problems of research in agriculture, physics, biology—as well as electing the President of the Royal Society and Professor J. B. S. Haldane to honorary membership.

Popularizing British Achievements

A particular feature of the year's cultural events was the attention paid to popularizing the creative achievements of the British people. Out of many occasions, mention may be made of the March meeting of the Gorki Institute of World Literature in Tashkent, to discuss the ties between Russian and English literature (for example, Pushkin's debt to English literature); the opening of a Darwin Exhibition by the Biology Department of the Academy of Sciences, at Frunze, capital of Kirghizia (April 19), and a similar exhibition, on the 100th anniversary of the great scientist's first notes on the origin of species, in Moscow in July, with a special session of the Russian Society of Natural Science, of which Darwin was an honorary member; a three-days' Shakespeare commemoration in Moscow on April 21-23, and the organization of a Shakespeare season by the Georgian State Theatre at Tbilisi in August.

Of special interest in wartime was the appearance on August 15 of the first issue (then published at Kuibyshev) of the British Ministry of Information's Russian weekly, Britansky Soyuznik, which began the welcome work of acquainting the Soviet public with the British war effort and British life in general.



IN SEVASTOPOL DURING THE SIEGE

Right up to the fall of Sevastopol (July 1, 1942) civilian activity continued in the city, as is shown by these photographs taken in the spring of 1942. The upper is of children at the entrance to one of the deep bomb-proof shelters which served as schools. The lower shows women in a shelter making warm clothing for the defenders of the city.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official



FAR EASTERN HUNTER BECOMES STALINGRAD SNIPER

From the wilds of the taiga, or sub-Arctic forest, in the Asiatic Russian province of Amur, north of Manchuria, came Maxim Passar, a hunter, to join Col.-Gen. Rokossovsky's Army of the Don. The skill he had developed in pursuit of game, particularly his deadly accuracy with the rifle, he employed to the full as a sniper against the Germans in the Don Steppes. Here he is picking out a firing position north-west of Stalingrad. *Photo, U.S.S.R. Official*



SCHOOL CHILDREN TAKE COVER IN BESIEGED LENINGRAD

Photo, Pictorial Press

'Bomb shelter,' says the notice on the pillar supporting the roof of this basement where the children are gathered during one of Leningrad's frequent air raid alerts in the spring of 1942. However bad the siege conditions, the citizens of Leningrad saw to it that the children suffered as little as possible. Even when, in the severest winter for years, there was no fuel for home use, the school buildings and their bomb shelters were kept warm.



REST FOR A WEARY TANK CREW IN THE WESTERN DESERT

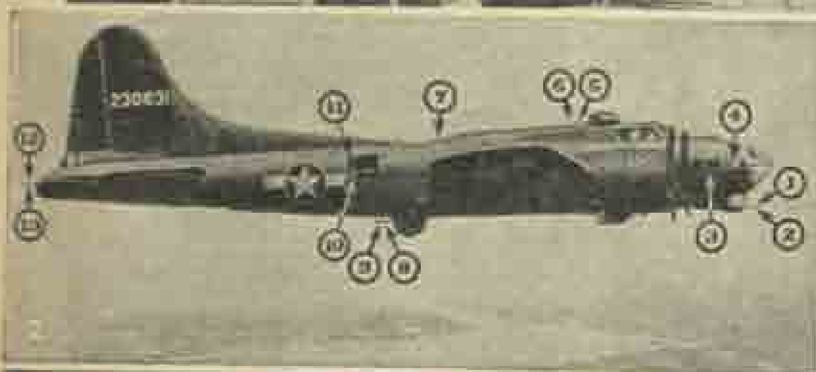
The men of the armoured regiment which raided far behind the enemy's lines after the infantry break-through before El Alamein on November 1, 1942, had to take their rest where and when they could get it—like the crew seen here sound asleep in the sun on the sand beside their 28-ton General Sherman tank. (See Chapter 255.)

Photo, Sport & General



FLYING FORTRESS WINGS OVER EUROPE

Brigadier-General Ira C. Baker led the first all-American air operation in Western Europe—a day raid on August 17, 1942, on the railway marshalling yards of Rouen made by 12 of the U.S. bombers known as Flying Fortresses—in the 'Yankee Doodle,' seen (1) being serviced at an all-American air base 'somewhere in England.' The Boeing Flying Fortress owed its name to its formidable armament: the B-17G model carried thirteen 50-calibre (0.5-in.) guns the position of which is shown in (2). (3) One of the Fortress's waist-guns—Nos. 10 and 11 in illus. (2). (4) The stream-lined tail-assembly, showing the two guns operated from the 'stinger' turret—Nos. 12 and 13 in illus. (2). (5) Taxi-ing up the runway to a take-off











Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

LANCASTERS' DARING DAYLIGHT RAID ON LE CREUSOT

On October 17, 1942, Wing-Com. L. C. Slee led 94 Lancasters in an unescorted 'hedge-hopping' flight across France to the Schneider arms works at Le Creusot, some 170 miles south-east of Paris, and 12 miles from the boundary that then separated occupied from unoccupied France. A great weight of bombs was dropped on the 287 acres covered by the works in an attack concentrated into 7½ minutes. The Lancasters dropped their bombs singly instead of in formation, to reduce civilian casualties. The Henri Paul electrical transformer station, five miles away, which supplied power to the Schneider works, was also bombed. No German fighter opposition was met, and only one Lancaster was lost. The photograph, taken from one of the attacking bombers, shows part of the formation roaring at a low level across Montrichard, 19 miles south-west of Blois

Historic Documents. CCLIX–CCLX

"A HEAVY DEFEAT" AND "A REMARKABLE VICTORY"

The early months of 1942 were shadowed by the avalanche-like advance of the Japanese. The Germans were beginning to suffer reverses at the hands of the Russians, but they were still everywhere deep in the Soviet state, and during the summer advanced to Stalingrad. There the Russians held them—and flung them back. As the year ended, the Japanese also were held; and success at last attended Allied arms in North Africa. This change is reflected in these quotations from two speeches by Britain's Prime Minister.

MR. CHURCHILL BROADCASTS THE NEWS OF THE FALL OF SINGAPORE, FEBRUARY 15, 1942.

When I survey and compute the power of the United States and its vast resources and feel that they are now in it with us, in with the British Commonwealth of Nations all together, however long it lasts, till death or victory, I cannot believe there is any other fact in the whole world which can compare with that. . . .

But there is another fact in some ways more immediately effective. The Russian armies have not been defeated. They have not been torn to pieces. The Russian people have not been conquered or destroyed. Leningrad and Moscow have not been taken. Russia's armies are in the field. . . .

Here, then, are two tremendous fundamental facts which will in the end dominate the world situation and make victory possible in a form never possible before. But there is another heavy and terrible side to the account which must be set in the balance against this inestimable gain. Japan has plunged into the war and is ravaging the fertile, prosperous, and densely populated lands of the Far East. . . .

The Mediterranean is closed and all our transports have to go round the Cape of Good Hope, each ship making only three voyages in the year. Not a ship, not an aeroplane, not a tank, not an anti-tank gun or A.A. gun has stood idle. Everything we have has been deployed either against the enemy or awaiting his attack.

We are struggling in the Libyan desert where perhaps another serious battle will soon be fought. We have to provide for the safety and order of liberated Abyssinia, of conquered Eritrea, of Palestine, of liberated Syria, and redeemed Iraq, and of our new ally Persia. A ceaseless stream of ships, men, and materials has flowed from this country for a year and a half in order to sustain our armies in the Middle East, which guard those vast regions on either side of the Nile barrier.

We had to do our best to give substantial aid to Russia. We gave it in her darkest hour, and we must not fail in our undertakings now. How then in this posture, gripped and held and battered as we were, could we have provided for the safety of the Far East against such an avalanche of fire and steel as has been hurled upon us by Japan? Always this thought overhung our minds.

There was one hope and one hope only—namely, that if Japan entered the war with her allies Germany and Italy, the United States would come in on our side, thus far more than repairing the balance. For this reason I have been most careful all these months not to give any provocation to Japan, and to put up with Japanese encroachments, dangerous though they were, so that if possible, whatever happened, we should not find ourselves forced to face this new enemy alone. I could not be sure that we should succeed in this policy. But it has come to pass. Japan has struck her felon blow and a new, far greater champion has drawn the sword of implacable vengeance against her and on our side. . . .

To-night the Japanese are triumphant. They shout their exultation round the world. We suffer. We are taken aback. We are hard pressed. But I am sure even in this dark hour that criminal madness will be the verdict which history will pronounce upon the authors of Japanese aggression after the events of 1942 and 1943 have been inscribed on its sombre pages. . . .

The overthrow for a while of British and U.S. sea power in the Pacific was like the breaking of some mighty dam. The long gathered, pent-up waters rushed down the peaceful valley carrying ruin and devastation forward on their foam and spreading their inundations far and wide. No one must underrate any more the gravity and efficiency of the Japanese war machine. Whether in the air or upon the sea or man to man on land, they have proved themselves formidable, deadly, and, I am sorry to say, barbarous antagonists. . . .

I have never prophesied or promised smooth or easy things, and now all I have to offer is hard adverse war for many months ahead. I must warn you, as I warned the House of Commons before they gave their generous vote of confidence a fortnight ago, that many misfortunes, severe torturing losses, remorseless and gnawing anxieties lie before us. . . .

Tonight I speak to you at home; I speak to you in Australia and New Zealand, for whose safety we will strain every nerve; to our gallant allies, the Dutch and Chinese; to our loyal friends in India and Burma; to our allies in Russia; and to our kith and kin in the United States. I speak to you all under the shadow of a heavy and far-reaching military defeat. It is a British and Imperial defeat. Singapore has fallen. All the Malay Peninsula has been overrun.

Other dangers gather about us out there, and none of the dangers which we have hitherto faced successfully at home and in the East are in any way diminished. This, therefore, is one of those moments when the British nation can show its quality and genius. This is one of those moments when it can draw from the heart of misfortune the vital impulse of victory. . . .

We must remember that we are no longer alone. We are in the midst of a great company. Three-quarters of the human race are now moving with us. The whole future of mankind may depend upon our action and conduct. So far we have not failed. We shall not fail now.

MR. CHURCHILL, AT THE MANSION HOUSE, SPEAKS OF THE VICTORIOUS BATTLE OF EGYPT, NOVEMBER 10, 1942.

I NOTICED, My Lord Mayor, by your speech that you had reached the conclusion that the news from the various fronts has been somewhat better lately. In our wars the episodes are largely adverse, but the final results have hitherto been satisfactory. . . .

. . . I have never promised anything but blood, tears, toil, and sweat. Now, however, we have a new experience. We have victory—a remarkable and definite victory. The bright gleam has caught the helmets of our soldiers and warmed and cheered all our hearts. . . .

. . . General Alexander, with his brilliant comrade and lieutenant, General Montgomery, has gained a glorious and decisive victory in what I think should be called the Battle of Egypt. Rommel's army has been defeated. It has been routed. It has been very largely destroyed as a fighting force. . . .

. . . The Germans have been outmatched and outfought with the very kind of weapons with which they had beaten down so many small peoples, and also large unprepared peoples. They have been beaten by the very technical apparatus on which they counted to gain them the domination of the world. . . .

. . . When I read of the coastal road crammed with fleeing German vehicles under the blasting attacks of the R.A.F., I could not but remember those roads of France and Flanders, crowded, not with fighting men, but with helpless refugees—women and children—fleeing with their pitiful barrows and household goods, upon whom such merciless havoc was wreaked. I have, I trust, a humane disposition, but I must say I could not help feeling that what was happening, however grievous, was only justice grimly reclaiming her rights. . . .

There was a time, not long ago, when for a whole year we stood all alone. Those days, thank God, have gone. We now move forward in a great and gallant company.

AIR WAR IN EUROPE AND THE FAR EAST JULY TO DECEMBER, 1942

The closing months of 1942 saw the United Nations at last beginning to overtake Axis strength in the air. In Chapter 240 Captain Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., described air operations during the last six months of this year in North Africa and the Mediterranean. Here he records the concurrent air activity in Western Europe and the Pacific theatre of war

The war in the air over Western Europe and the Atlantic Ocean developed substantially during the second half of 1942. The high spots of this development included the first really large-scale combined operation against Dieppe, the introduction of still larger bombs in the night attacks against German industrial targets, the employment of long-range fighter-bombers for day and night attacks, and the intensification of the air war against the submarine.

The air fighting waged over the Canadian landing at Dieppe on August 19 rivalled in intensity that of the Battle of Britain. It was directed by Air Marshal Sir Trafford Leigh-Mallory, Air Officer C.-in-C. Fighter Command, who, for the occasion, had operational control over units of Bomber and Army Co-operation Commands, together with units of the United States Air Force and Allied Air Forces. The air objectives were twofold: (1) to obtain air mastery in the air above Dieppe and the Channel so that the surface task force could execute its operation without enemy air interference; and (2) to force the Luftwaffe to fight, which it had taken pains to avoid for some time, with the result that our fighter sweeps over France had returned with remarkably small bags. Spitfires, Mustangs (see illus. following p. 2266), Hurricanes, Bostons and Blenheims were used. Aircraft laid smoke-screens in front of the landing parties, while fighters provided a protective curtain from 100 to 30,000 feet; enemy gun batteries were bombed. The Luftwaffe lost 93 aircraft for certain that day at Dieppe (and there is evidence to show that its losses in aircraft destroyed may have been as high as 170) for an Allied loss of 98 aircraft of all types, with 30 fighter pilots saved.

During the course of the action Fortress bombers, escorted by R.C.A.F. and R.A.F. fighters, bombed Abbeville aerodrome, the German fighter base about 40 miles from Dieppe; all the Fortresses returned safely. The air force employed for Dieppe dropped more than 261,000-lb. of high explosive and anti-personnel bombs, and fired tens of thousands of machine-gun and cannon-gun ammunition. (See Chapter 243.)



Wing-Cmdr. H. G. MALCOLM, V.C.

Fifty to sixty Messerschmitt fighters met a force of ten Bisleys led by Wing-Cmdr. Malcolm when, on December 4, 1942, it made an attack without fighter escort on one of the enemy's forward fighter airfields in North Africa. None of the Bisleys returned; but the airfield was wrecked. Malcolm was posthumously awarded the Victoria Cross for his part in the operation, which he knew would mean almost certain death.



Flt.-Sergt. R. H. MIDDLETON, V.C.

Decorated for devotion to duty "unsurpassed in the annals of the R.A.F." Despite severe wounds, Middleton, of the R.A.A.F., on November 28, 1942, piloted his damaged machine back from Turin to the English coast, where, with fuel for five minutes' flying, he ordered the crew to abandon craft. Five landed safely; the bodies of two others who remained to assist him were recovered from the sea. His own body was not traced.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Marcus Adams

British night bombers were now regularly dropping 4,000-lb. and 8,000-lb. bombs on German industrial targets. (The first 8,000-lb. bomb to be dropped on Italy fell on Turin in the night following November 28.) Except for the period when northern Italian ports and industry became the primary targets for Bomber Command, coincident with the advance of the Eighth Army from El Alamein, the attacks on German industrial cities were maintained with great regularity on the scale of 200 to 600 bomber raids. Cities attacked by night included *Bremen*, *Vegesack*, *Wilhelmshaven*, *Hamburg*, *Kiel*, Ruhr and Rhineland towns, Saarbruecken, Duisburg, Duesseldorf, Ruhrort, Meiderich, Hamborn, Osnabrueck, Mainz, Frankfurt, Wiesbaden, Kassel, *Gdynia*, Nuremberg, Karlsruhe, Pforzheim, Munich, Krefeld, Cologne, Stuttgart, and *Bordeaux docks*. Names in italics indicate raids concerned directly with the anti-submarine war, and include the bombing of submarines and of shipyards making submarines. In addition, many of the other targets contained material or factories engaged in the part manufacture of submarines and their equipment. Indeed, it is not too much to say that 50 per cent of Bomber Command activity was concerned with the anti-submarine war.

In daylight there were four principal British raids and many subsidiary ones. The four main attacks were over Danzig and Flensburg on July 11 against submarine shipbuilding yards by Lancaster bombers, which descended out of the twilight on to their targets; on July 16, when Stirling bombers attacked Luebeck submarine yards and Lancasters bombed Flensburg again; on October 17, when 94 Lancasters bombed the Schneider-Creusot armament works in France in the twilight, losing only one of their number; and on December 6, when nearly 100 day bombers attacked the Philips radio factory at Eindhoven.

On August 13, 1942, Headquarters of the United States Army in Europe issued its first communiqué announcing participatory actions by U.S. fighters. The American heavy bombers went into action on August 17, when a formation of Fortress bombers attacked the





PARACHUTE AND 8,000-POUND BOMBS FOR THE R.A.F.
A train of parachute bombs ready for bombing-up Hampdens at an R.A.F. station. (Left) Man-handling an 8,000-lb. bomb into position for loading on to a Lancaster. The use of these nearly 4-ton bombs by the R.A.F. in raids on Germany was announced by the Air Ministry on September 18, 1942. The first 8,000-pounder dropped on Italy fell on Turin in the night following November 28, 1942.
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Central Press

marshalling yards at Rouen. On August 28 they bombed the Potez air-frame factory at Méaulte, near Albert. On September 5 they again attacked Rouen; on September 7, Rotterdam shipyards and Utrecht railyards; and two days later with Liberators (mentioned for the first time) they bombed the Fives-Lille steel works in Belgium. On this last action the 115 bombers engaged were assisted by 500 fighters. The fighters shot down five German aircraft, the bombers 48. Five bombers were lost, with one crew saved.

This remarkable achievement was due to the design of the bombers for daylight operations and the armament and armour they carried, together with the turbo-supercharged engines, which enabled them to operate at heights up to 25,000 feet or more, and to fly very fast at these great heights. Each Fortress carried 12 half-inch machine-guns, able to fire with accuracy at ranges equal to the cannon-guns carried by the German fighters, and with a much faster rate of fire, which gave them a greater weight of fire-power. The introduction of these aircraft into the European day skies was a technical surprise for the Luftwaffe that cost the German Air Force heavy losses, while the accuracy of the American precision bombing did effective damage to the targets attacked.

These bombers continued to carry out important missions during the remainder of the year, but did not penetrate into Reich territory until 1943. Their most important raids were against Lorient and Maupertuis aerodrome on October 21, Brest on November 7, La Pallice and St. Nazaire on November 14, St. Nazaire again on November 17, La Pallice and Lorient on November 18—all of them being part of the anti-submarine war. On December 6 another attack was directed against the Belgian Fives-Lille railway shops, and on December 12 against Rouen railway yards.

Fighter aircraft during the six months concentrated on sweeps over the Low Countries and France, curving inland to a distance of about 50 miles in a great crescent east and west of the Straits of Dover—fighting when the enemy sent up fighters, attacking all legitimate military targets which showed themselves to the air crews, and maintaining a continuous offensive against locomotives and rolling stock on the Continental railways and the coastal traffic that dodged along close inshore from port to port under the supposed protection of German fighters and anti-aircraft guns. Fighter bombers, using delayed-action bombs of up to 500 lb., swept low to secure good aim and dealt effective destruction among a variety of targets. At night intruder fighters flew over the enemy aerodromes waiting for German aircraft to rise or return so that they might knock them down among the Christmas-tree-like lights of the airfields lit up for their guidance.

Air Attacks on Birmingham

Air raids against targets in the United Kingdom were fewer and less concentrated. The most important were against Birmingham and the surrounding district in the nights following July 27, 29, and 30, when 26 bombers were brought down in the three raids. On October 31 an afternoon raid was made on Canterbury, when nine bombers were destroyed for the loss of two fighters. These were the only important attacks. (*See* illus., p. 2369.)

The intensity of the fighting in Russia during the German summer offensive

which began in July, and the defensive fighting which succeeded the opening of the Russian winter offensive in October, with the resistance required to meet the furious onslaught of Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder's air forces in North Africa, drained the Luftwaffe of bombers based in France. It was estimated that not more than 250 bombers were left in Western Europe—with a coastline stretching for nearly 2,000 miles from the North Cape to the river Bidassoa, which divides France from Spain at the southern end of the Bay of Biscay.

Considerable air fighting broke out over the Bay of Biscay between long-range British fighter aircraft and German fighter-reconnaissance aircraft, mostly Junkers 88s, with an occasional Focke-Wulf Kurier. The German aircraft were scouts for their submarines or were on patrol to protect them as they left or returned to the Biscay ports. British heavy bombers and flying-boats patrolled the waters for sight of the submarines, carrying depth-charge bombs for action against them. The long-range fighters patrolled in protection of the bombers and flying-boats. The pattern of this air activity was directed by naval requirements through Coastal Command of the R.A.F., and it began to have an increasingly important effect on the efficacy of the German submarine campaign. Nor could the enemy slip through unscathed under cover of darkness, for powerful searchlights carried by some of the heavy aircraft enabled them to sweep the surface of the waters in search of their prey.

Air Action against Submarines

First experiment with these searchlights, which illuminated the water with a beam many millions of candle-power in strength, was made by Wing-Commander H. de V. Leigh, O.B.E., D.F.C., and a R.A.F. Coastal Command operational flight was formed which practised attacks on a moored target. When the technique reached the desired standard the flight was brought up to squadron strength, and on its first sortie sighted two U-boats, both of which were attacked with the aid of the searchlight. More squadrons, known as the Leigh Light Squadrons, were equipped with the device.

To combat the convoy method of ship protection the submarines began to hunt in packs of anything up to 20 submarines, going out and returning in echelon formation. They sought the mid-ocean gap which lay beyond the range of aircraft based in the United Kingdom, West Africa, the West Indies, America, Canada, and Iceland. Their attacks were based on information received from the Germans' own long-range reconnaissance aircraft—hence the importance of intercepting these over the Bay of Biscay when they came out from the Bordeaux aerodrome of Merinac—and doubtless from the reports of secret service agents. But small aircraft carriers were being built to meet the mid-ocean menace—carriers of the Battler type that would carry slow-flying and slow-landing aircraft like the Swordfish, capable of getting off and on to small flying-decks heaving in the Atlantic weather and of carrying depth-charge bombs. Although these aircraft had no great range of flight (fewer than 300 miles) they were able to take off and fly around the convoy and seal the gap, which, after all, did not exceed 500 miles in breadth. The battle with the submarine was not yet over—it was to rise to a new crescendo in the spring of 1943—but the counter-measures which the autumn of 1942 saw in progress bid fair to curtail its deadliness.

Brazil's declaration of war against Germany and Italy on August 22 helped the anti-submarine war, for Brazilian aircraft patrolled the north coast of that country and sighted and sank several submarines. The Brazilian bases helped to seal the relatively narrow ocean reach between Dakar and Natal (Brazil), thereby making it more difficult for enemy submarines to gain passage into the waters outside the North and mid-Atlantic.

Death of the Duke of Kent

It might be said that H.R.H. the Duke of Kent gave his life in the war against the submarine. He left a north of Scotland base in a Sunderland flying-boat to fly to Iceland for an inspection of air units there engaged in the war with the U-boat. It was misty on the morning of August 25 in the north of Scotland, as it often is over the Sutherlandshire mountain and moor. The flying-boat crashed into a mountain while flying in cloud (the inquiry held that the pilot made an error of judgement and was off his course), and the Royal Group Captain was killed instantly. There was only one survivor, the tail gunner.

Yet this tragic accident but served to illuminate the comparative rarity of such incidents. More and more aircraft were streaming across the Atlantic from the factories of the Western hemisphere; one Ferry Command crew created a record by flying the Atlantic five times in nine days. These crews were internationally recruited. They were not necessarily military; many of them were civilians wearing a distinctive dark-blue uniform, with



COMMANDERS OF THE AMERICAN AIR FORCE IN EUROPE

Brig.-Gen. Ira Clarence Eaker (right), commander of the 8th Bomber Command of the 8th U.S. Army Air Force in the European theatre of operations, May–November 1942, led the first all-American bombing attack on a Nazi objective in Europe when Flying Fortresses made a daylight raid on Rouen marshalling yards, August 17, 1942. Major-Gen. Carl Spaatz (left), commander of the 8th U.S.A.A.F. June–November 1942, was succeeded by Eaker on his appointment to a command in N. Africa.

Photo, Barratts

small silver wings in metal on the left breast to denote the pilots, and with rings of rank, like the braid worn by R.A.F. officers but of a different colour, denoting First Officer, Captain, and Senior Captain by two rings, two-and-a-half rings, and three rings respectively, with a star above the topmost ring. They held no military authority. They were like officers of a shipping line, serving on terms of contract, but doing invaluable work with little publicity, and scant praise for all they did.

Among them were the navigators and the radio-operators who accompanied the pilots, working usually as a team, and flying anywhere in the world as need arose, from California to New Delhi, Melbourne or Cairo, Chungking or London, Moscow or Honolulu. To these men the world had already shrunk to the size of a province. They were the freemen of the continents, barred only by the Germans and the Japanese in the areas these two nations held in thrall.

Freemen of the Continents

Almost the whole of the Russian air effort during the second half of 1942 was confined to the tactical needs of the long fighting front. Bitter air fighting occurred over the active fighting areas, with each side striving to attain local mastery of the air above the surface forces. But each side was so evenly matched in the skies that such a success was almost unobtainable; both suffered heavy losses in aircraft. With their advance into the Caucasian sector the German aircraft attacked shipping moving along the North Caucasian coast. The Russians hit back against the German aerodromes and destroyed more than a hundred German aircraft on the ground in one surprise air attack.

As the German thrust penetrated deeper into the steppe country between the Don and the Volga, and their advance towards the latter river gained ground, other parts of the 2,000-mile line became inactive on the German side and made it easier for the Russians to consolidate their air activities. The main German drive was towards the oilfields of Transcaucasia, where there was petrol suitable for aviation in addition to vast quantities of less highly volatile fuels. The Grozno oilfields and Stalingrad were the immediate objectives.

General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson became G.O.C. of a new independent Army Command in Persia-Iraq on August 23, a command which secured the lines of communication between the Persian Gulf and South Russia along which Allied supplies moved, including aircraft from Britain and America. Some of the American aircraft were flown across the Atlantic to West Africa, thence across the African continent to Transjordan, Iraq and Persia, and so to the Russians for the use of the Red Air Force defending the vital area between the Black and Caspian Seas. The principal strategic threat was the possible linking up of the German forces fighting into Caucasia with the Japanese forces in Burma menacing India. If that junction had been effected, the war would have assumed an even graver aspect, and the common enemy become immensely stronger and more difficult to defeat. The Persian-Iraq Command was the defence zone for Western India.

In spite of the tremendous pressure of the German army on Russia, the Red Air Force carried out some strategic attacks, notably upon Koenigsberg, East Prussia, in the nights following July 18 and 20. Again on September 4–5 the Red Air Force raided Budapest, Vienna, Breslau and Koenigsberg, and were again over Eastern Germany at night on September 9; these were targets which had not been bombed by the R.A.F. Before September 12 Jena, Warsaw, and Berlin also were attacked by Russian bombers. The targets fell on a line roughly parallel with the Russian fighting front, and contained important industrial organizations and communication links within the German transport system.

By the end of September street fighting had been in progress in Stalingrad for several days, and German aircraft had bombed Astrakhan and shipping moving along the river Volga. Away in the north-west a British convoy bound for Murmansk was strongly attacked by German aircraft and submarines in the region of the North Cape. For four days the attacks continued, but the convoy got through with some losses. Cata-fighter pilots flying Sea-Hurricanes helped to beat off the enemy bombers.

Sea-Hurricanes Defend Convoy

The Russians began to take the offensive to the north-west of Stalingrad. Air fighting over the area became concentrated and bitter; the Germans threw 3,000 aircraft into this zone. But on November 19 the Russians reported their first "winter" victory near Ordzhonikidze in the central Caucasus after several days' hard fighting. By November 22 they had cut the two railway lines supplying the German forces east of the river Don, and the Germans admitted that their troops were fighting heavy defensive battles at Stalingrad. Subsequent German counter-attacks were repulsed, and by December 19 the Russians had broken through the German positions on the middle Don. At the end of the year this Russian advance towards the Donetz basin, together with the advance down the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway to beyond Kotelnikovo, had trapped the large



FILM RECORD OF A 1,000-BOMBER RAID

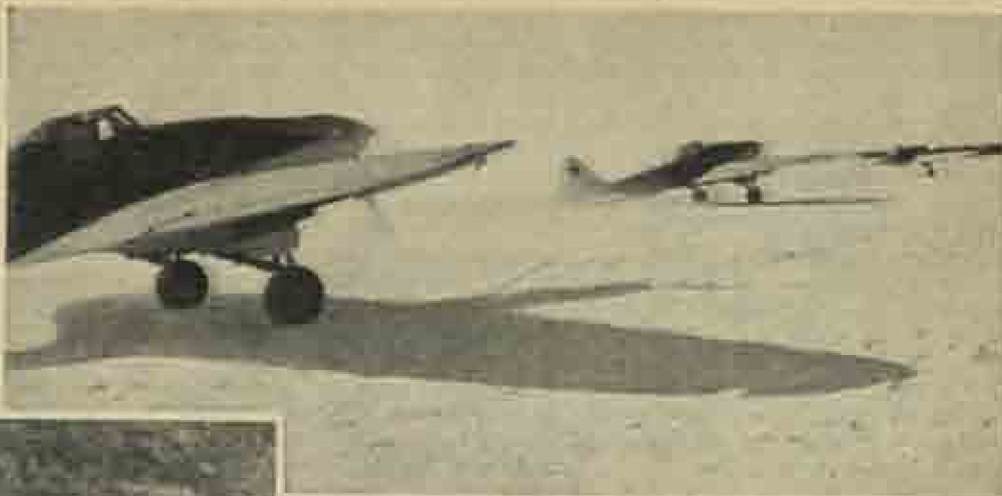
During the attack made by 1,000 bombers of the R.A.F. on Bremen on the night of June 25, 1942, a cine-camera hand-operated by the cameraman in a Lancaster produced this record of falling incendiaries and flak as it flew over the target. The cameraman was trained also to act as Second Pilot if the need arose.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

MEN AND MACHINES OF THE RED AIR FORCE

At the outbreak of war with Germany, in June 1941, the Red Air Force, like the R.A.F. in 1940, faced a much superior Luftwaffe; but similar courage and tenacity enabled them to hold the enemy. By 1942 the Russians had developed new types of special-purpose aircraft, among them the Stormovik IL-2 (right), specially armoured for low level attack against German Panzer units, and the Petlyakov 2 (below, right), a dive-bomber designed also for reconnaissance. Below, briefing crews for a bombing sortie.

Photos, Planet News; Pictorial Press







German force between the Volga and the Don. The German army in and around Stalingrad, under Colonel-General von Paulus, was cut off except for the Junkers 52 transport planes which ran supplies in to them. The Battle of Stalingrad assumed increasing importance, and became at the end of the year a battle for possession of the aerodromes. If the Russians could capture all the aerodromes around the city the German forces would be finally beleaguered and could not hold out.

The old strategy of siege had a new factor to contend with—that of supply by air. It was not enough to attempt by means of fighter aircraft or by the bombing of the aerodromes to prevent supplies from getting through, for, serious though the German losses in aircraft were by these means, they were able to make them good and to send in yet more transport aircraft. The aerodromes themselves were the key to the situation: the fate of Stalingrad was the fate of its aerodromes. Aerodrome defence had become the key to military strategy; failure to defend the aerodromes meant disaster; and with this prospect before them the German troops between the rivers Don and Volga saw the old year of 1942 pass into the new year of 1943. The year which had offered perhaps the last chance of success to Hitler vanished into history without having produced the decisive success which alone could bring victory to German arms.

On July 23, 1942, the Japanese made a new landing in New Guinea in the Buna-Gona area, pushed inland, and were checked at Kokoda, about 53 miles from the north coast. The landing was accompanied by Japanese air attacks against Australian territory, notably at

Darwin and Townsville. The raid on Townsville on July 25 marked the first air attack against the eastern seaboard of Australia; little damage was done. Enemy raids were also made regularly against Port Moresby. (See illus., p. 2467.)

At the Western end of the Japanese-occupied area the monsoon held up activity in Burma, except for the air raids which the Allied Forces continued to deliver against key points in enemy occupation, mainly Akyab, the most northerly port in the Bay of Bengal to fall into enemy hands. In the Northern Pacific, the Japanese, supported by two small aircraft carriers and two seaplane tenders, landed on Attu, Kiska, and Amaratu in the Aleutians.

Organization of American opposition to the programme of Japanese conquest had by this time been brought to a point where retaliatory action could be taken, and on August 7 United States naval forces, with American and Australian air units, attacked the Japanese holding Guadalcanal Island and the Tulagi anchorage in the Solomon islands—the best naval anchorage in that area of the South Pacific. United States marines fought their way ashore. Eighteen Japanese seaplanes were destroyed and synchronized air attacks were delivered against Japanese aircraft based in New Guinea and on all other air bases whence help might be sent to their forces in the Solomons. Next day, Japanese air attacks against American ships were beaten off, 18 more enemy aircraft destroyed, and the newly completed Japanese aerodrome on Guadalcanal Island captured. By August 10 U.S. forces had destroyed the Japanese garrison on the islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo. Thousands of miles away in Kiska harbour Japanese transports were sunk simultaneously by American bombers, in spite of the fog wreaths that spread over that inhospitable region. U.S. bombers attacked Kiska on September 24, 25, 27, 28 and 30, causing Japanese losses in men, aircraft and ships. (See illus., p. 2313.)



BRITISH AIRBORNE TROOPS IN TRAINING

The War Office announced the formation of an Army Air Corps of the British Army, including a Glider Pilots Regiment, on March 24, 1942. Men of the Glider Regiment—all selected from the Army—underwent training under R.A.F. instructors at Army Co-operation Stations, where they learned, among other things, to read maps and to navigate and control gliders in tow by aeroplanes. Airborne troops trainees are here seen entering a Hotspur glider. (See badges in plate facing p. 2115.)

Photo, L.N.A.

Japanese strategy in New Guinea developed from the Buna-Gona landing into an infiltration movement across the Owen Stanley mountain range towards Port Moresby, coupled with an attempt to seize Milne Bay, where a landing made by the enemy on August 26 met a crushing defeat (see Chapter 249). The enemy base at Buna was bombed as heavily as available air strength permitted, and Allied aircraft made low-flying attacks with bombs and machine-guns against the infiltrating Japanese soldiers with telling effect, thus giving valuable assistance to the Australian troops resisting the Japanese advance. Air action also helped to repel the assault on Milne Bay.

Japanese Losses in New Guinea

On August 23 the Japanese had made a strong air attack against the Americans on Guadalcanal Island. It failed to achieve its object, and 21 Japanese aircraft were destroyed for the loss of three American machines. Though they had far fewer aeroplanes, the Americans were already clearly technically superior to the Japanese. The following day American aircraft attacked a Japanese naval force escorting transport vessels approaching Guadalcanal from the north. Six ships, including one cruiser and one destroyer, were set on fire and one transport was sunk. The naval air war developed still further next day. Sixteen Jap bombers, escorted by 12 fighters, attacked the Americans on Guadalcanal Island again; seven bombers and five fighters were destroyed for the loss of one American fighter. Elsewhere in the area a large Japanese aircraft carrier and the small carrier "Kyuzko" were hit and severely damaged by air attacks. On August 27 U.S. aircraft attacked four Japanese destroyers, sank one (probably two) and left another in flames.

The Japanese continued to challenge the American occupation of Tulagi and Guadalcanal. A large-scale enemy air attack upon Guadalcanal Island was driven off with loss on September 5.

A few days later strong formations of enemy aircraft attacked Guadalcanal and Tulagi on three successive days and the Japanese landed reinforcements on these islands at night. On September 13 the American heavy bombers attacked a strong Japanese naval force which was forced to withdraw from north-west of Tulagi. In the consolidation of the positions won by the Americans the air power of the United States was the dominant factor which effectually prevented the possibility of a successful Japanese counter-thrust; while in the air-sea actions which were fought over these tropical waters, despite the frequently unfavourable flying conditions, aircraft continually demonstrated their ability to defeat the surface ships of the enemy.

On October 3 Australian aircraft in the Solomons successfully attacked a Japanese naval squadron and enemy airfields at Buka. In the same area, on October 9, United States aircraft attacked a Japanese force of two light cruisers and four destroyers, hit both cruisers and shot down three enemy seaplanes. Two days later large enemy air forces attempted to attack American positions on Guadalcanal Island; for the loss of two fighters the Americans shot down eight bombers and four fighters. On October 22 United States aircraft damaged three enemy warships in the Shortlands Island area of the Solomons. The following day Japanese air attacks on the American positions on Guadalcanal were driven off, and the enemy fighter escort of 20 aircraft was completely destroyed. Two days afterwards a combined enemy attack on Guadalcanal by land, sea and air was unsuccessful. During the month of October 55 enemy vessels were sunk or crippled by air attack in the Solomons and Rabaul (New Britain) areas. (*Consult also* Chapter 250.)

Air and Sea Battles in the Solomons

Everywhere over the tropical waters aircraft ranged and their attacks grew fiercer. Early on December 3 Allied aircraft raided Kupang aerodrome on Timor Island and destroyed or damaged 21 Japanese aircraft. On the 11th United States dive-bombers attacked a Japanese flotilla of 11 destroyers approaching Guadalcanal Island and hit five of them. Next day a United States naval force attacked the flotilla and sank two destroyers and damaged another for the loss of one motor torpedo-boat. On December 16 a group of Flying Fortress bombers intercepted by 12 fighters shot down all 12 without loss.

In New Guinea the situation continued to improve after the defeat of the Japanese at Milne Bay. The enemy advance through the gap in the Owen Stanley range towards Port Moresby was held at Ioribaiwa, and then the Australians began to push the Japanese back. Allied aircraft attacked the enemy supply line through Kokoda to Buna; Lae, Salamaua, and other enemy bases, and enemy shipping off the New Guinea coast and at Rabaul harbour were bombed. Before daybreak on October 23 Fortresses sank or damaged 10 Japanese vessels, including a cruiser, at Rabaul. On November 3 the Australians captured Kokoda, and a Japanese reinforcing convoy was attacked three times from the air and driven off.

While the Australians pushed along the 55 miles that lie between Kokoda and Buna, the Japanese main base in the area, they received invaluable air support. In the difficult jungle and mountain country transport by air of essential supplies was an integral part of their swift-moving action. Without it they would have found it difficult to support themselves, and either the advance would have slowed down, or the attacking force would have had to be reduced in strength to fall within the compass of supply by native porterage. Over the difficult part of the country, where aircraft could not land, supplies were dropped in special containers attached to parachutes.

By November 7 the Australians had driven the enemy back into the Buna-Gona area, and flat country was available to the Allies. That day American troops were flown from Australia and landed by air transports within the Buna area, the first time in the war that United Nations' troops (except parachute troops) had been conveyed by air transports to a fighting zone. The last holding of the Japanese in the Papuan section of the great island of New Guinea was a mere coastal strip in the Buna-Gona district with about 12 miles of beachhead. Allied aircraft attacked a Japanese relief force off the New Guinea coast on November 18–19, and Fortresses sank a Japanese cruiser and a destroyer with 500-lb. bombs. On November 23 Australian troops entered Gona—subsequently lost, but recaptured on December 9—and on the night of November 24 another Japanese attempt to land reinforcements was smashed by Australian and New Zealand aircraft, which sank

Drive against the Japanese in Papua



FOUR-CANNON HURRICANE RETURNS FROM INTRUDER PATROL

From 1942 onwards 'intruder patrols' by fighter aircraft were almost a nightly feature of R.A.F. operations in the European theatre of war. Many enemy bombers leaving for, or returning from, raids on Britain were destroyed near their bases by R.A.F. fighters hovering over aerodromes in the occupied countries. The four-cannon Hurricane, one of the types used for this work, had a devastating fire-power.

Photo, Central Press

two destroyers and damaged another. Noted for their persistence, the Japanese again tried to reinforce their hard-pressed troops in the Buna zone at the beginning of December, but their naval force was driven off in a night action, and 23 covering aircraft were destroyed. On December 7 the enemy lost 18 aircraft in an attack on the Allied line of communications. American troops occupied Buna village on December 14 (though enemy resistance in the Buna area continued till January 3, 1943.)

Meanwhile, the American programme for building twenty-five per cent of their bomber aircraft as military transport machines was beginning to show results.

Field Hospital Flown to New Guinea

A complete field hospital was flown into the Papuan district of New Guinea in 10 large air transports, and was working south of Buna the day after its arrival at the airfield there. Two-ton 105-millimetre guns were flown from Australia to the Buna area; each gun, with its crew and tractor, was flown from Australia to New Guinea in a Fortress (see illus., p. 2464). The last jump over the Owen Stanley mountains was made in smaller transport aircraft better able to alight on the forward landing-field, each one carrying half the load of one Fortress. Soon after their arrival the guns were in action against the Japanese hemmed in on their coastal strip near Buna. On this restricted target area the American aircraft used parachute bombs to ensure accuracy; the forward flight of these bombs is checked by a parachute opening the instant they leave the bomb-bay, and the bombs fall vertically on the spot over which they are released.

Bad weather setting in assisted the Japanese in defending their last beach-head in Papua, but gradually they were driven in and the ground wrested from them. The year ended with the fighting approaching its final stages, largely because the air above the battlefield was by then firmly held by Allied air forces. (*Consult also* Chapter 249.)

The Burmese front was the scene of increasing activity. After the ending of the monsoon rains British forces began to advance south-eastwards from their positions near Chittagong in the direction of Akyab, and this advance penetrated into the delta country to the north of the latter port. Ground forces were aided by air power, the principal aircraft then in use being Hurricane fighters, Blenheim and Wellington bombers, and Hudson reconnaissance aircraft. Considerable attention was paid to the Japanese-held airfields in Burma, many of which, reclaimed from paddy (rice) fields, required continuous coolie labour to keep them in condition, while bombing churned the surface to mud and interfered with the operations of the Japanese Army Air Force. Other targets were railways and roads, coastal craft supplying Akyab, sampans and barges on the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers. Aircraft were used tactically to bomb and machine-gun the Japanese front lines, and bombing was carried out at a range of 1,000 yards from our own front line.





NERVE CENTRE OF R.A.F. FERRY COMMAND

Successful organization of the Transatlantic ferrying of aircraft built in Canada and the United States for the R.A.F. was largely the work of Air Chief Marshal Sir Frederick Bowhill, who left Coastal Command in June 1941 to build up this branch of air activity. Here is the controller's desk at Transatlantic Flight Control in Britain; the movements board indicates the positions of a group of aircraft, most of them in flight. Four had arrived—two Liberators some few minutes late, two Fortresses well ahead of time on their 3,000-mile journey. (Inset) The sign that hung at the entrance to Ferry Command headquarters in Britain. (See also illus., page 2443.)

Photos, Topical Press

Japanese bombers raided Calcutta for the first time on December 20 and again on December 22, during the succeeding night, and on Christmas Eve.

First Air Raid on Calcutta

The raids were small by European standards. About nine tons of bombs were dropped in these four raids. In the first three 25 people were killed and fewer than 100 injured. The raiders were met by gunfire, and later by night fighters. There were only three bombers in the third raid and two were damaged by Hurricanes. These fighters shot down one of the Christmas Eve raiders. Civilian morale was excellent, and was praised by the Viceroy. Raid damage was small. On December 26 U.S. heavy bombers from India attacked objectives at Bangkok, including the airfield.

In the North and Central Pacific zones the action was confined to air-sea warfare. On December 30 two enemy cargo boats were bombed in Kiska harbour with uncertain results. The bombers were escorted by Lightning fighters (see illus. following p. 2266); Zero floatplanes intercepted. One bomber, two Lightnings, and one Zero were shot down in the combat. Next day American

medium bombers scored three hits on one ship and two on another, and lost no aircraft. Kiska *in itself* could play the part of an outpost and no more. It provided cover for territory nearer to both belligerents; it served as a base for air and sea sweeps of the 1,500-mile-wide stretch of ocean between the Aleutians and the Hawaiian islands. Its strategic advantage was greatest to the nation or group of nations holding the Hawaiian islands. Kiska's seizure by Japan was doubtless part of a plan that had failed as a result of the battle of Midway Island, which decided the fate of the Hawaiian island group.

In the Central Pacific the Americans were now beginning to hit back. On Christmas Eve the largest mass heavy bomber raid yet made in the Pacific zone was delivered by United States Army Fortress and Liberator bombers against Wake Island and the adjacent Beale Island, which had fallen into Japanese hands early in the war. This American-owned island had been part of the air route island chain across the Pacific Ocean from San Francisco to Hongkong. The Christmas Eve raid was the Americans' third air attack on Wake Island, and in it more than 75,000 lb. of bombs were dropped. All the bombers returned safely to the nearest base on Midway Island, 1,200 miles away, and Honolulu, 2,000 miles from the scene of the attack. Japan has no comparable four-engined bombers; this is one of the weaknesses of her Air Force.

Mass Bomber Raid on Wake Island

By the end of 1942 the outlook had brightened for the Allies. The enemy everywhere had ceased to advance; greater or lesser dents were being made in his perimeters. The African campaign was going well; Stalingrad was becoming a graveyard of German troops and aircraft. In the Far East the Japanese were beginning to realize that they were up against something greater than their soldiers had ever known before. Their sailors were finding that air power is a boomerang that swings back from the hand that holds the most power, and their ships were sinking, in a continuous war of attrition from the air, under the bombs and torpedoes of American, Australian and New Zealand airmen, and, nearer India, British airmen, too. The great bomber offensive against Germany was rising to fresh efficiency, with greater loads dropping in less time over more cities; the American daylight offensive had started and was gathering speed.

The Enemy Ceases to Advance

Allied air power was growing. The new U.S. fighter, the Thunderbolt, (see illus. following p. 2206) had been power-dived to 725 m.p.h. and was soon to show the mettle of its 2,000-h.p. turbo-supercharged engine and heavy armament in the European skies alongside the Fortress bombers. The United States Army Air Force had reached 1,000,000 and more men by the end of the year and was due to rise to over 2,000,000 strong by the end of 1943. In the whole of 1942 the United States factories produced 49,000 war aircraft. The production of the Allies already far exceeded the aircraft production of the Axis. The tide of battle in the air had turned.



AIR WAR IN THE PACIFIC

The smoke trail of a Japanese bomber shot down during the bitter land, sea, and air fighting which followed the American landing on Guadalcanal in August 1942. (Below) Later in the same year, U.S. Marines load a bomb on to a trailer in a palm-concealed "bomb garden" near an airfield on Guadalcanal after it had been occupied by the Americans.

Photos, Keystone; Planet News



THE BATTLE OF EGYPT: OCT. 23—NOV. 5, 1942

The Battle of Egypt was an out-and-out victory for British arms, won over hard-bitten, confident Nazi veterans who had twice forced the Allies back into Egypt after previous promising drives to the west. Reference to the map on page 2531 will help to explain Montgomery's tactics. This Chapter takes up the story of the desert campaigns where it was left at the end of Chapter 224

At El Alamein Rommel and his victory-flushed veterans of the Afrika Korps were almost within sight of the grateful greenery of the Nile Valley, the massed minarets and domes of Cairo, the derrick-lined docks of Alexandria. Only another 60 miles: and what was 60 miles to men who had come so far! Soon the panzers would be churning up the immemorial dust of Egypt, and the pyramids would look down on the latest of a long line of conquering hosts.

That was in June 1942. July passed, and August; September slipped away, and most of October. There were weeks of bloody battle and more weeks of waiting. Glittering in the cruel sun the prize of prizes lay ready for the taking—or so it seemed. Huddled in the gap, only 40 miles wide, between the sea and the desert depression, was—not an army, but—the remains of an army, the broken regiments of Auchinleck's command. To the compilers of the German communiqués the battle was as good as won. Rommel himself was full of foolish boasting. Even in Cairo there were some who, hearing the none-too-distant thunder of the guns, feared that the slender line would not, could not, hold. Yet hold it did. Once again that supremely British virtue, the calm and complete refusal to know when one is beaten, took the sting out of defeat and in due season turned defeat into victory.

Rommel in Egypt

Those precious weeks during which Auchinleck's 8th Army held the pass at Alamein were weeks of terrible strain, filled with anxiety and danger. We have told their story in Chapter 224 (see page 2238); here let it be emphasized that the time that was gained was turned to the most excellent advantage.

While the battle was still raging in the Devil's Cauldron at Knightsbridge and round Bir Hacheim, three United Kingdom divisions (44th, 50th, and 51st) had left Britain on their way to Egypt by the long, long way of the Cape; and before the fall of Tobruk hundreds of 6-pounder guns and large numbers of heavily armoured and heavily gunned tanks had also been dispatched. President Roosevelt made a mighty contribution to Britain's depleted armament in the shape of Sherman and Grant tanks and self-propelled 105-mm. guns. The 28-ton Sherman tank in particular—many of those dispatched to Egypt were actually withdrawn from units of the U.S. Army to which they had been delivered—was to prove invaluable, showing itself in all particulars far superior to the German Mark IV. When one ship with the precious convoy from America was sunk by a U-boat, immediately the United States, without being asked, replaced it with another carrying an equal number of the all-important weapons. But vitally important as those American supplies were to prove to the issue of the impending battle, it is a fact—publicly insisted on by President Roosevelt—that all but a small part of the equipment of the 8th Army was produced in British factories and transported in British ships. Records were broken at every point in the unloading and fitting up of the weapons and in their issue to the troops, the divisions old and new were assiduously trained in the desert.

British air striking power was also formidably reinforced—the air force had at least 800 bombers at its disposal for the attack, and so effectively were they used that the enemy's air force was rendered virtually powerless. "I would never dream of going into battle without the Desert Air

BRITISH FORMATIONS & COMMANDERS IN THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

Corps	
10 Corps	Lt.-Gen. H. Lumsden, D.S.O., M.C.
13 Corps	Lt.-Gen. B. G. Horrocks, M.C.
30 Corps	Lt.-Gen. Sir Oliver Leese, Bt., C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O.
Divisions	
44th Div.	Maj.-Gen. I. T. P. Hughes, D.S.O., M.C.
50th Div.	Maj.-Gen. J. S. Nichols, D.S.O., M.C.
51st Div.	Maj.-Gen. D. N. Wimberley, M.C.
1st Armd. Div.	Maj.-Gen. R. Briggs, D.S.O.
7th Armd. Div.	Maj.-Gen. A. F. Harding, C.B.E., D.S.O.
10th Armd. Div.	Maj.-Gen. A. Gatehouse, D.S.O., M.C.
9th Australian Div.	Maj.-Gen. Sir L. G. Morshead, K.B.E., C.M.G.
1st S. African Div.	Maj.-Gen. D. H. Pienaar, D.S.O.
2nd N.Z. Div.	Lt.-Gen. Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C., K.C.B.
4th Indian Div.	Maj.-Gen. F. I. S. Tuker, O.B.E.

Note.—It is not possible to group Divisions under their Corps, because several of them changed their Corps as the battle developed.





GENERALS WHO LED THE EIGHTH ARMY TO VICTORY

Lieut.-Gen. Bernard Law Montgomery (centre), who devised the tactics that defeated Field-Marshal Rommel in the Battle of Egypt; on his right is Lieut.-Gen. Sir Oliver Leese, Bt., C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., Commander of the 30th Corps, and on his left, Lieut.-Gen. Herbert Lumsden, D.S.O., M.C., Commander of the 10th Corps. Lieut.-Gen. B. G. Horrocks, M.C. (right) was Commander of the 13th Corps.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



THE TANKS WAIT THEIR TURN TO GO INTO ACTION

The tremendous barrage put up by our artillery on the night of October 23-24, 1942, against the strongest part of the enemy positions in the Alamein sector, was followed by an infantry attack in force; then the tanks went in and through. Here, in the early morning, our armour is waiting until artillery and infantry have cleared gaps in the enemy's minefields.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Force behind me," said General Montgomery a year later when reviewing his campaign in Africa. In brief, "everything in human power was done," said Mr. Churchill in his review of the battle on November 11. "We recreated and revivified our war-battered army, we placed a new army at its side, and re-armed it on a gigantic scale. By these means we repaired the disaster which fell upon us, and converted the defence of Egypt into a successful attack."

When Mr. Churchill was in Cairo on his way to Russia he gave to the newly appointed commander, General Alexander, on August 10 this directive: "(1) Your paramount duty will be to attack or destroy at the earliest opportunity the German-Italian army commanded by Field-Marshal Rommel, together with all its supplies and establishments in Egypt and Libya. (2) You will discharge, or cause to be discharged, such other duties as appertain to your command without prejudice to the task described in paragraph 1, which must be considered paramount in His Majesty's interest."

In spite of the strain to which Alexander had been subjected in "the hard and adverse campaign in Burma," went on the Prime Minister, "he accepted his new duties with ardour"; and so ably was he seconded in his plans and efforts by "that remarkable soldier, General Montgomery," and Air Marshal Tedder and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham, "those air leaders of the very highest quality, not technicians, but warriors," that an electrifying effect was produced upon the troops now standing ready or being mustered for the assault on what was indeed a fortress blasted out of the solid rock.

On September 26, Ribbentrop said at a ceremony celebrating the second anniversary of the Tripartite Pact, and attended by the Italian and Japanese Ambassadors, "In North Africa we shall give the British no rest." On October 3, Rommel, then on a visit to Berlin in which he was received with the honours due to a conquering chief, declared: "We hold the gateway of Egypt with the full intention to act. We did not go there with any intention of being flung back sooner or later. You may rely on our holding fast to what we have got."

Rommel on his Intentions

Twenty days later the doughty commander of the 8th Army issued this statement to British and American correspondents assembled at his headquarters: "During the night there will be fought a terrific battle. By dawn



THE GREAT BARRAGE OPENS—25-POUNDER IN ACTION

British guns stationed at intervals of 23 yards along a front six miles long hurled a terrific barrage at the enemy lines at El Alamein during the night of October 23-24. The flashes as they were fired intensively lit up the line from end to end; and the shells that swept Rommel's positions softened his defences and prepared the way for the advance of the infantry.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

tomorrow we shall know better where we are. A start has been made on what General Smuts has called 'the offensive.' In this battle the 8th Army and the air forces supporting it are one. They are both operating on one set plan and not two—one for the land arm and one for the air arm. In this I believe lies their great strength. I have always maintained that we are one fighting force. Here in North Africa in the past there have been successes and failures.

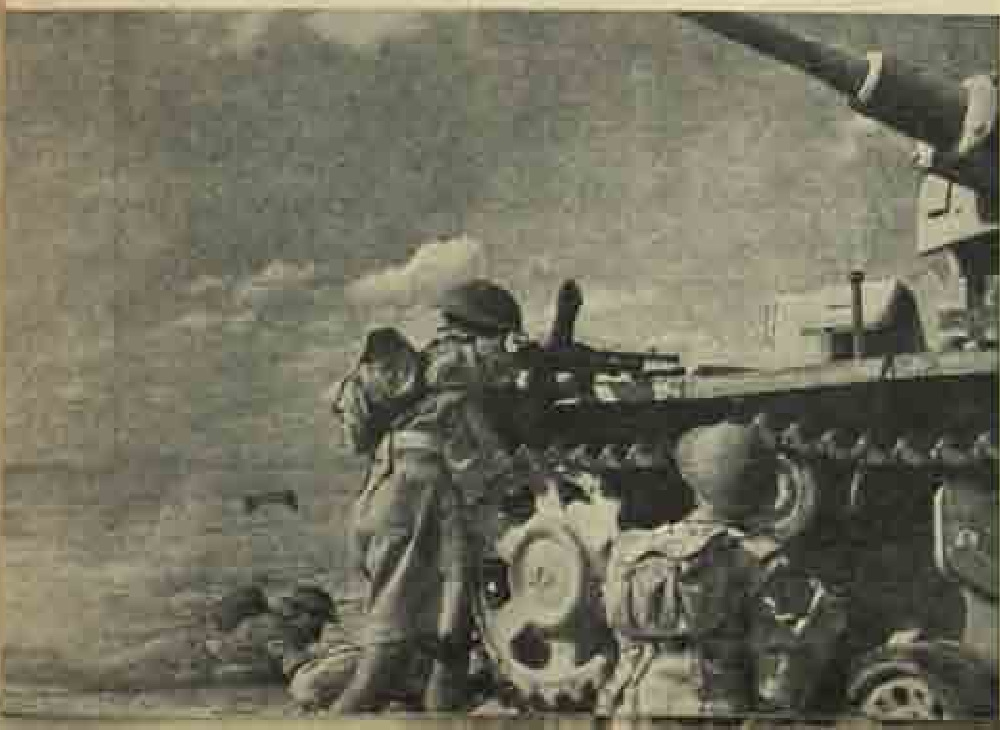




FIRST PHASE OF THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

Following the artillery bombardment of October 23–24 came the first phase of the battle—the advance of the infantry, here seen (top centre) moving forward across the desert in open formation towards advanced enemy positions. They consolidate a captured German strong-point (above); one of its defenders lies dead beside his wrecked gun. (Below) A Bren-gunner takes cover behind a derelict enemy tank.

Photos, British Official



I have always found in my long association with British troops that they will never let their leader down. Today I believe that the morale of the 8th Army is right upon the top line. I and my commanders will see that it stays there."

On the eve of the battle the rival armies faced each other along a front of 40 miles (see maps, pages 2235 and 2531). Montgomery's right flank and Rommel's left were based on the Mediterranean. The other end of the line lost itself in the impassable wastes and ravines of the Qattara Depression. In between, across ridges and hillocks of sand covering the underlying rock, the British and their opponents had dug themselves in behind and between their minefields, in strong-points and emplacements for field-guns and machine-guns.

Disposition of Montgomery's Forces

Montgomery's men were fairly evenly spread out along the length of the front. The order of divisions, from north to south, ran (see map, p. 2531): 9th Australian, 1st South African, 4th Indian and 50th (Northumbrian), with some Fighting French and Greeks. Close behind were the 51st (Highland); the 44th (Home Counties), acting as the tactical reserve; and one of the British armoured divisions. Somewhat farther back, some 50 miles or so behind the line, was the 10th Corps, composed of two British armoured divisions and the 2nd New Zealand Division—a very powerful force of between 40,000 and 50,000 men, with all the best tanks, the Grants and Shermans.

The rôle of this corps was carefully explained by Mr. Churchill in his speech of November 11. It was necessary to effect a penetration of about 6,000 yards at the first stroke in order to get through the hostile minefields, trenches, and batteries. In the last war it was nearly always possible to make this initial penetration, but when the cavalry tried to gallop through the gap blasted by the artillery they were invariably soon



Mansion House speech of November 10. "Generals Alexander and Montgomery fought it with one single idea. They meant to destroy the armed force of the enemy, and to destroy it at the place where the disaster would be most far-reaching and irrecoverable."

Coming at the end of a fortnight of intense aerial and artillery activity, October 23 was a day of terrific bombardment of the enemy positions; artillery and aircraft together achieved



AUSTRALIANS AND HOME COUNTIES MEN IN ACTION

The first work of the infantry advancing on October 23-24 was to take the enemy strong-points that barred their way. A dense smoke screen hid the movements of these Australians as they approached one such defensive position. (Below) Machine-gunners of a Home Counties regiment in action with their Vickers gun in a forward post. Enemy artillery strove desperately to check the great advance but was taken by surprise. *Photo, British Official*



brought to a standstill by the machine-guns posted in the enemy rear. "But times have changed. We have a steel machine cavalry now which, once a path is cleared through the mines and anti-tank guns, can go forward against machine-gun nests to encounter whatever mobile forces of the enemy may lie beyond." The 10th Corps was this steel cavalry, charged with the task of turning to full account the breach as soon as it had been effected by the infantry.

Rommel's Forces

Rommel's armour was divided between north and south, the 15th Panzers and the Italian Littorio Armoured Division being near the coast, and the 21st Panzers and the Italian Ariete Armoured Division facing the Indians. The greater part of the German infantry was in the north; the centre was held weakly by Italians; and most of the remaining Italian divisions were in the south. Altogether Rommel had 12 divisions—perhaps 100,000 men—with about 700 tanks and very strong artillery and anti-tank units against 10 Allied divisions.

From these dispositions it seems that Rommel expected the attack to be made on his centre from the direction of the Ruweisat Ridge. The Italians there were the bait in a trap. As soon as Montgomery had made his assault and broken into the Italian lines, Rommel probably thought to close the trap by flinging on to the attackers' flanks the mighty forces of armour massed in readiness to north and to south. The trap was set, but Montgomery refused to walk into it. From the very first the great Rommel was no match for the wily Irishman. When the attack came it was launched not at the provocatively weak centre but at the strongest point in the enemy line—the north. For this was a battle fought not for "the sake of gaining positions or so many square miles of territory," to quote Mr. Churchill again, this time from his

a crescendo of fearful destruction. At 9.30 in the evening the Battle of Egypt began. Along a front of six miles, in the northern sector just south of the Mediterranean shore, British guns, spaced at an average interval of only 23 yards, poured a terrific fire on the enemy's front line and the deep zone of his defences beyond. For 20 minutes the barrage thundered at its height. The moon was up, a brilliant moon. At 10 p.m. the infantry went in to attack, Morshead's Australians, the Highlanders of the immortal 51st, Freyberg's New Zealanders and Pienaar's South Africans. Simultaneously the 4th Indian Division in the centre made a feint attack, while in the south, the Fighting French, supported by the United Kingdom armoured division placed there, attacked in the El Hemeimat-Beir el Munassib area. The whole front was in movement, and the enemy was for a time at a loss to know which and where was the main thrust. Then to his surprise he found that the most heavily defended point in his line was the 8th Army's prime objective. A few days later, when the captured German General von Thoma, commander of the Afrika Korps, was a guest in Montgomery's caravan, near the scene of his overthrow, he told his conqueror, "We expected a new form of tactics when we heard of your appointment. We got them, and we couldn't deal with them."

By 5.30 the next morning (October 24) the assailants were four miles beyond the enemy's advanced minefields, and during the next few days they strove to widen and deepen the salient they had managed already to carve out. By the evening of October 25 some 1,450 German and Italian prisoners had been taken.

That night there was marked progress by the Australians up against the coast and by the Highlanders to the south of them. The enemy counter-attacked furiously, only to be bloodily repulsed. By day and by night the advance went on, not only in the vital northern sector but all down the front where men of the British Isles and of the Dominions, Indians, Fighting French, and Greeks were nibbling and probing and thrusting at Rommel's fortress.

For nine days this first phase of the battle went on—days of hard slogging on the part of the infantry, of delicate footwork on the part of the sappers, pushing before them their vacuum-cleaner-like instruments of mine detection. The whole area was one vast minefield, and tens of thousands of the deadly contrivances had to be located and marked or removed so as to make plain the path for the advancing troops and tanks. It was a slow, dangerous business. But the job was done.

The salient in the north had become a bulge, and on the night of November 1-2 a brigade each from the 50th and 51st Divisions, with New Zealanders, pushed another three miles farther west. Covered by a tremendous barrage, the British and Dominion infantry swept forward through minefields and wire, overran position after position at the point of the bayonet, and by dawn had cleared a passage for Montgomery's 10th Corps, brought up from the Delta (where a dummy camp still suggested their presence to Rommel's reconnaissance planes).

On they rumbled in great strength, American Grants and Shermans, British Crusaders, the cream of Britain's now mighty tank force; and "it was this thunderbolt, hurled through the gap," said Mr. Churchill, "which finished Rommel and his arrogant army." All through the day a great battle raged between the opposing armour at Tell El Aqqaqir, beyond Kidney Ridge in the northern sector of the front. The pace was terrific, and the enemy proved unable to stand the strain. The infantry break-through had taken nine days of hard fighting; the second great achievement of the battle was over in

Great Tank Battle of El Aqqaqir





SAPPERS SWEPT THE SANDS FOR MINES

The retreating enemy left minefields behind him. Across these, sappers of the Royal Engineers laid parallel tapes making a lane wide enough to take a vehicle. Then they swept the lane with mine-detectors, dug up the mines they found and, after the first vehicle had gone through, widened the lane by further sweeping and digging. Signs, painted white towards the swept gap, red towards the remaining mines, were put up as these 'safe areas' were opened.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



'THE GLORIOUS AND DECISIVE VICTORY CALLED THE BATTLE OF EGYPT'

The course of operations and the forces engaged are here clearly indicated. Relative positions of the opposing armies on October 23, 1942, are shown in brown; succeeding movements until the Axis rout was well under way on November 5 in orange. (See Chapter 255.)



CRUSADERS SWEEP IN TO THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

New heavy tanks, and enough of them, combined with fresh methods of handling and complete tactical surprise, enabled the Allied armoured division to win decisively in the great tank battle that raged all day at Tell El Aqqaqir on November 2, 1942. British Crusaders, American Shermans and Grants proved a full match for the Germans' heaviest armour. Manned almost exclusively by United Kingdom troops, including most of the famous cavalry and yeomanry regiments and the Royal Tank Regiment, they formed a mighty armoured force—"This thunderbolt, hurled through the gap, which," said Mr. Churchill, "finished Rommel and his arrogant army."

Photo, British Official



THUNDER OF THE EIGHTH ARMY'S GUNS THAT OPENED THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

The Battle of Egypt began at 9.30 p.m. exactly on Friday, October 23, 1942. British guns spaced at 23-yard intervals along a six-mile front in the north of the 40-mile line between El Alamein and the Qattara Depression poured out a raging barrage that lasted for 20 minutes. In the brilliant moonlight of the chosen night, the infantry were able to see after the barrage died down, when in the surprise attack that followed it they had to advance against the most strongly held sector of Rommel's lines.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright

as many hours. By the end of the day the desert battleground was a cemetery of Axis tanks, shattered, smoking mournfully to heaven. British tank casualties were heavy, but the enemy losses were crippling; only a beaten remnant of Rommel's once-so-powerful armour moved slowly from the field.

At nightfall Tell El Aqqaqir (The Hill of the Wicked) was captured, and on the next day El Heimeimat, at the southern extremity of the front, was retaken. How well the battle was going was revealed in a communiqué issued by G.H.Q. Cairo on November 4:

"The Axis forces in the Western Desert, after 12 days and nights of ceaseless attacks by land and air forces, are now in full retreat. Their disordered columns are being relentlessly attacked by our land forces and by the Allied air force by day and night.

Axis Forces in Full Retreat

General von Stumme, a senior general, who is said to have been in command during Rommel's absence in Germany, is known to have been killed. So far we have captured over 9,000 prisoners, including General Ritter von Thoma, commander of the German Afrika Korps, and a number of other senior German and Italian officers. It is known that the enemy's losses in killed and wounded have been exceptionally high. Up to date we have destroyed more than 260 German and Italian tanks, and captured or destroyed at least 270 guns. The full total of the booty cannot be assessed at this stage of the operations. In the course of these operations our air forces, whose losses have been light, have destroyed and damaged in air combat over 300 aircraft and destroyed or put out of action a like number on the ground. At sea our naval and air forces have sunk 50,000 tons, and damaged as much again, of shipping carrying Axis supplies to North Africa. The 8th Army continues to advance."

While the great tank battle was being fought to the west of Kidney Ridge there were signs of enemy disintegration all along the front. Rommel knew what the result of the armoured conflict would be, and, armed with that foreknowledge, started to withdraw his precious German veterans while the Italian infantry still constituted sufficient of a screen. Appropriating most of the mechanical transport, the survivors of the 164th and 90th Light Divisions disengaged and were sent back along the road at whose end lay the prison-camps of Tunis. They were followed by the remnants of the Panzer divisions. On November 3 the enemy



LIEUT.-COL. V. B. TURNER, V.C.
On the night of October 27, 1942, Lieut.-Col. Turner, leading a battalion of the Rifle Brigade, captured a German position, and then organized its defence. Isolated and unsupported, he held on from 5.30 a.m. to 7 p.m., repulsing continuous attacks and destroying or immobilizing at least 55 German tanks. Wherever the position was threatened, there was Lieut.-Col. Turner. Acting as loader to a solitary six-pounder which he found manned only by another officer and a sergeant, he himself helped to destroy five tanks, and though wounded in the head, refused aid until the last of them was finished.
Photo, "New York Times" Photos

retreat was in full swing. In the south the Italian infantry, abandoned by Rommel, still fought on at isolated points, only to be overwhelmed by Montgomery's advance. Hardly a man managed to get away to join the fugitives thronging the roads and tracks to the west which were now being blasted into bloody disorganization and ruin by Tedder's airmen. For miles back the roads were a sea of flame.

All the positions on the 40-mile-long front that Rommel had built with such care and toil were carried by the Allied infantry at the bayonet-point.

"The enemy is in our power, and is just about to crack," said Montgomery in a special Order of the Day to the 8th Army on November 3. "I call upon all troops to keep up the pressure and not to relax for a moment. We have the chance of putting the whole Panzer army in the bag, and we shall do so. I congratulate all troops on what has been achieved. Complete victory is almost in sight. . . ."

The whole line swept forward, engulfing the unhappy Italians. By November 5 more than 13,000 prisoners were "in the bag," and the enemy rearguards had been brought to bay well to the west of Daba. Here and there in the desert little pockets of Italian resistance continued, but at the extremity of the line strong New Zealand forces raced along the edge of the Qattara Depression in an attempt to roll up the remnants of Rommel's once-formidable host and pin them against the sea.

On November 5 General Montgomery met the Press correspondents again. He was in cheerful, even triumphant, mood—as he might well be. "It has been a fine battle," he said, "and it has resulted in complete and absolute victory. The Boche is completely finished. We drove wedges in his line, and I passed through three armoured divisions which are operating in the enemy's rear. Those portions of his army which can are trying to get away; those portions which cannot—and there are still a lot in the south—are facing our troops and will be put in the bag. I did not hope for such a complete victory; or rather, I hoped for it but did not expect it." After 12 days of very hard fighting, the

Complete and Absolute Victory

REGIMENTS WHICH FOUGHT AT THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

Life Guards.
Queen's Bays.
Royal Dragoons.
Royal Horse Artillery.
Royal Horse Guards.
Scots Greys.
3rd, 4th, 8th, 10th and 11th Hussars.
9th and 12th Lancers.

Caernarvon Yeomanry.
County of London Yeomanry.
Denbighshire Yeomanry.
Derbyshire Yeomanry.
Essex Yeomanry.
Honourable Artillery Company.
Lancashire Hussars.
Leicestershire Yeomanry.
Norfolk Yeomanry.
North Somersetshire Yeomanry.
Northumberland Hussars.
Nottinghamshire Yeomanry.
Royal Gloucestershire Yeomanry.

Royal Wiltshire Yeomanry.
South Nottinghamshire Hussars.
Staffordshire Yeomanry.
Surrey Yeomanry.
Sussex Yeomanry.
Warwickshire Yeomanry.
West Kent Yeomanry.
Yorkshire Dragoons.

Many units of the Royal Tank Regiment, including those from Bristol, Leeds, Liverpool and Oldham.

Black Watch.
Cheshire Regiment.
East Yorkshire Regiment.
Essex Regiment.
Green Howards.
Queen's Own Royal West Kent Regiment.
Royal Sussex Regiment.
Sherwood Foresters.

The Buffs.
The Queen's Royal Regiment.

Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders.
Durham Light Infantry.
Gordon Highlanders.
King's Royal Rifle Corps.
Middlesex Regiment.
Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders.
Rifle Brigade.
Royal Northumberland Fusiliers.
Seaforth Highlanders.

The United Kingdom contingent included all the armoured formations, and a large part of the Royal Artillery, Royal Engineers, Royal Corps of Signals, Royal Army Service Corps, Royal Army Medical Corps, Royal Army Ordnance Corps, Corps of Military Police and Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers.



AMBULANCES FOLLOWED THE TANKS

Ambulances were in the thick of the tank battle at El Aqqaqir, and were never far behind the front during the Eighth Army's victorious drive after Rommel. A badly wounded man is here being transferred from tank to ambulance, to be taken back to safety. His tank, unless it also had been disabled, would then go forward again. Extricating wounded tank crews was a major problem for R.A.M.C. personnel. *Photo, British Official*

General went on, the 8th Army and the Allied air forces had gained a complete victory. The enemy was smashed. "For the last two nights the road behind the enemy has been blocked with stuff four deep trying to get away. They have been bombed day and night. But we must not think the party is over. We have no intention of letting the enemy recover. We must keep up the pressure. We intend to hit this chap for six right out of North Africa."

The enemy losses were tremendous. Downing Street announced already on November 7 that Montgomery estimated his prisoners at 20,000, while 400 tanks, 350 guns, and several thousands of transport vehicles had been taken or destroyed. All the senior Italian generals were captured in the field; and of the German generals, Bismarck, Von Stumme, Von Prittwitz and Neumann-Silkow were killed, and Von Thoma, Von Ravenstein, Schmitt and Cruewell were prisoners. Rommel's host, reported Cairo, was a scattered rabble, making what haste it could into Libya. As against these losses, the 8th Army suffered a loss of some 13,600 officers and men, 58 per cent of the casualties being from the United Kingdom. British officer casualties were disproportionately high, since all the armoured formations were British.

Rommel's Host a Scattered Rabble

At the Mansion House in London on November 10 the Prime Minister, in a speech from which important passages are quoted in page 2515, talked of the glad and proud tidings that "in what I think should be called the Battle of Egypt, General Alexander, with his brilliant comrade and lieutenant, General Montgomery, has gained a glorious and decisive victory."

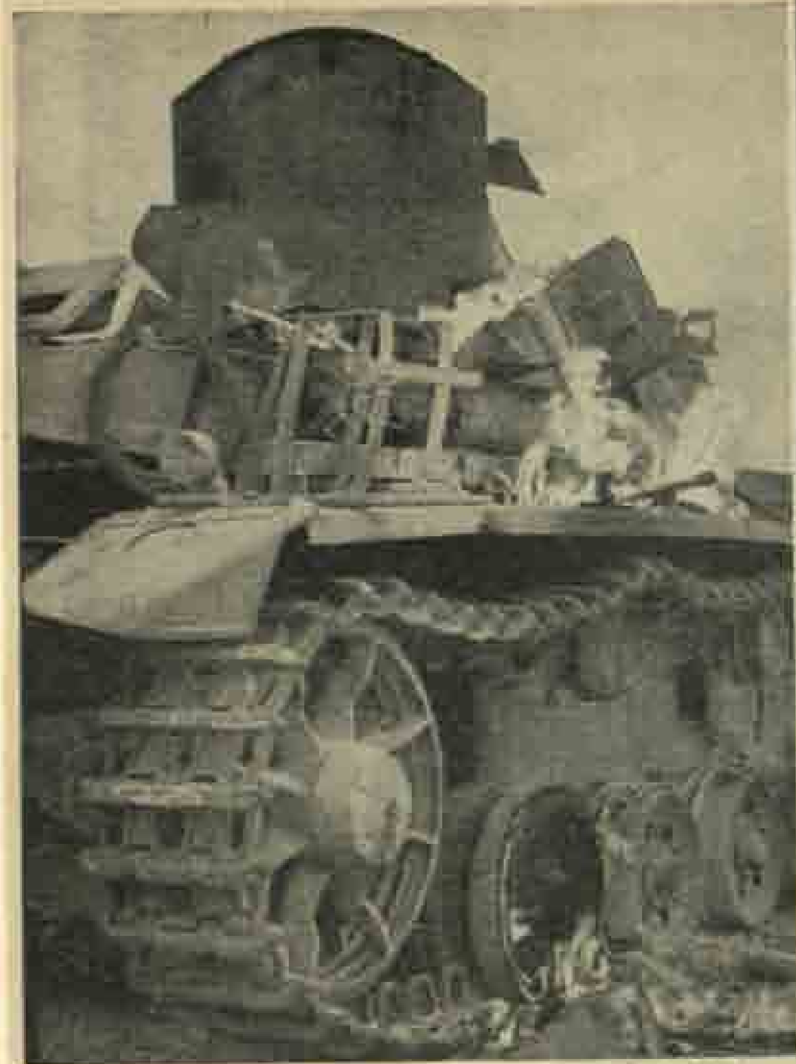
Two days later, on November 12, in the House of Commons, the Prime

SURRENDER OF A GERMAN TANK CREW

The battered hulks of knocked-out German tanks strewed the battlefield at the close of the bitter armoured battle at El Aqqaqir during the Battle of Egypt. Survivors from these immobilized tanks, one of whom is here seen surrendering to British infantryman, were among the many Afrika Korps prisoners taken.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright







EL AQQAQIR WAS A CEMETERY OF ARMOUR

The second decisive phase in the Battle of Egypt was the violent tank battle which raged for some nine hours at El Aqqaqir on November 2. Heavy losses were incurred by both sides, but by nightfall the enemy was broken and El Aqqaqir taken. Burning wreckage of a German Mark III (top left), one of the many left behind by the retreating Axis forces. The coup-de-grâce to other disabled armour (bottom) was often administered by the R.E.s. Near miss by a bomb fails to check a British Crusader (top right); while a General Grant hurriedly takes in fresh ammunition for its 75-mm. gun (right). By Nov. 5, some 260 Axis tanks had been destroyed.







THINGS THEY LEFT BEHIND THEM

The headlong retreat of Rommel's army after the Battle of Egypt became almost a rout, his forces abandoning wholesale their equipment, tanks, guns and aircraft. Men of a Home Counties Regiment are here seen inspecting an Italian position abandoned during the Eighth Army's initial great bombardment of the enemy lines at El Alamein.

Photo, British Official : Crown Copyright



DESERT MESS: MEN OF THE R.A.F. PAUSE FOR A MEAL

R.A.F. cooks, advancing as the Eighth Army advanced, performed miracles of ingenuity in providing food at a moment's notice. They used any rations that happened to be handy, and improvised cooking utensils, to produce meals for the airmen who played a decisive part in the disruption of Rommel's retreating forces. *Photo, British Official*

Minister paid tribute to the conquerors, to the generals and to the gallant men they had led to so great a victory.

"It is true we had gathered superior forces," he said, "but all this would have been futile but for the masterly military conceptions of the commanders, the attention to detail which characterized their preparations, and the absolute ruthlessness with which their forces were engaged, not only at the point of rupture but in gripping the enemy along the entire battle front. This battle is in fact a very fine example of the military art as developed under modern conditions. The skill of the commanders was rivalled by the conduct of their troops. . . . This noble desert army, which has never doubted its power to beat the enemy, whose honourable pride had suffered cruelly from retreats and disasters which they could not understand, regained in a week their ardour and self-confidence. . . . Taken by itself the Battle of Egypt must be regarded as a historic British victory, and in order to celebrate it directions are being given to ring the bells throughout the land next Sunday morning. . . ."

But perhaps the battle may be best summed up in another passage from Mr. Churchill's Mansion House speech. "This is not the end," he said. "It is not even the beginning of the end. But it is, perhaps, the end of the beginning."

THE RACE FOR TUNIS: NOV.—DEC. 1942

This first-hand account of the Anglo-American landings in Algeria and Morocco, and the subsequent dash of Lieut.-Gen. Anderson's small First Army in an unsuccessful effort to occupy Tunis before the Germans could do so, is given by Mr. A. D. Divine, the only British correspondent with the U.S. Combat Forces during this initial phase of the North African campaign

At one o'clock on the morning of November 8, 1942, the greatest armada that has ever assembled fell at three points on the coastline of Northern Africa.

The politico-strategic problem involved in the French colonial possessions in Africa was of an extraordinary complexity. It is difficult to conceive the vastness of the French North and West African possessions. Almost half the Mediterranean coast of Africa belongs to France; more than half the west coast from Spanish Morocco to the mouth of the Congo belongs to her. The vast hinterland is conjoined; and under the Vichy regime this whole area, except for Equatorial Africa, was potentially hostile. The major problems that faced the Allied Chiefs of Staff were those of denying North Africa to the enemy, of securing it with its enormous wealth both of raw materials and strategic positions for ourselves, of cutting off Rommel's rear, and of carrying out the whole operation with the greatest possible economy of shipping and material.

Dakar had been attempted once before. The new strategy disregarded Dakar. The plan, as it was carried out, provided for the capture of the northern coastline both on the Atlantic and on the Mediterranean, and assumed that, with Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia in Allied hands, French West Africa and the great Saharan regions to the south would fall without bloodshed. To make certain of North Africa it was necessary to hold four main strategic ports: Casablanca to ensure the possession of Morocco with its potential of warlike tribes; Oran (only 525 miles from Marseilles and possible reinforcement) and Algiers (only 580 miles from Naples) to secure the enormous territory of Algeria; Tunis to cut finally Rommel's supply lines and to deny him a short sea route of escape.

Plans for the Capture of French Africa

If all four points had been equally easy of access, there would have been no North African campaign. But the last sector of the vast French African coastline lay within range of the Luftwaffe's Sicilian bases. The theoretic bomb line cut the African coast about Algiers: beyond Algiers it was believed that large-scale operations would be impossible without large-scale air cover. It was decided, therefore, that three of the four ports should be invaded from the sea—Casablanca, Oran, and Algiers—and Tunis should be attacked from the land as soon as the bases were secure.

The Vichy Government had declared unequivocally that it would resist any attack on its colonial possessions—a declaration implemented at Dakar, in Syria, in Madagascar. The Allies, therefore, decided to attempt to "soften up" that resistance. The landing and re-embarkation of three British and four American officers, headed by Major-General Mark W. Clark (U.S. Army), from a British submarine, commanded by Lieut. N. L. A. Jewell, on the North Africa coast is among the more remarkable episodes of the war. Contact was made with sympathizers; considerable sums of money were expended; and it was confidently believed in many quarters that, in view of the fact that the initial landings were to be made by American troops, the groundwork done by General Clark and his party coupled with the traditional friendship between America and France would suffice to prevent bloodshed. That view disregarded the intransigence of a section of the French authorities in North Africa.

The organization of the convoys, their routing through the submarine-infested waters of the Atlantic, their passage through the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean narrows



EISENHOWER'S FIRST MESSAGE TO THE FRENCH

Between 2 a.m. and dawn on November 7, 1942, thousands of the leaflets reproduced above were dropped by the U.S. Army Air Force and the R.A.F. on centres of population both in North Africa and in France. The text reads: 'Frenchmen of North Africa: Faithful to the traditional and ancient friendship of the government and people of the United States for France and for French North Africa, a great American army is landing on your soil. Our immediate purpose is to protect French North Africa against the menace of an Italo-German invasion. Our principal aim is the same as in 1917, namely, the annihilation of the enemy and the complete liberation of invaded France. The day when the Italo-German menace ceases to weigh upon French territories we shall leave your soil. The sovereignty of France over French territories remains complete. We know we can count on your co-operation to clear the way which leads to victory and to peace. All together, we shall get them!'

Photo, "Daily Express"

under the protection of the Royal Navy are among the great masterpieces of naval warfare. They, and the Casablanca convoy sailing from America, arrived off the invasion points without loss. Invasions are most vulnerable upon the sea. By zero hour—1 a.m. on the morning of November 8—the Allies had won the first round without a blow. The second round—the landing of the forces under Lieut.-Gen. Dwight Eisenhower (see illus., p. 2142), Allied C.-in-C. North Africa—was different.

At Algiers, where most of the preparatory work had been done, there was only a token resistance. We lost two destroyers, the "Martin" and the "Broke," the latter in forcing the boom. Resistance on shore was confined to the area about the Amirauté, to a few sporadic outbursts on the beaches, and to a certain amount of sniping.

At Oran, with its memories of the attack on the French warships there in 1940 (see Chapter 105)—an attack the absolute necessity of which was underlined in every phase of this brief campaign—resistance was determined. The Oran assault began with an attempt to seize the salient points in the harbour itself. Two ex-American coastguard cutters, the "Hartland" and the "Walney," which had formed part of the escort of the great convoy of the invasion on the way over, went in without covering fire. At ten minutes past three on the morning of November 8, H.M.S. "Walney" broke the Oran boom. She was followed by "Hartland" and two M.L.s. With an almost inconceivable gallantry they pressed home their attack under heavy fire from warships and coastal batteries. Both ships reached their objectives: both ships were sunk with heavy loss of life. For his part in this operation, Acting-Captain F. T. Peters, D.S.O., D.S.C., who took the "Walney" into Oran, was awarded the V.C. (see illus., p. 2387).



ALLIED FORCES LAND IN ALGERIA

American troops began to land at several points in Algeria and French Morocco at midnight on November 7–8, 1942. 1. Units landed at Surcouf, 14 miles east of Algiers, set off inland carrying the stars-and-stripes. 2. Major-General Charles G. Ryder, commanding the U.S. landing forces at Algiers, where he signed an agreement with the local Vichy commander, General Alphonse Juin, at 7 p.m. arranging for the American occupation of the city. 3. Smiling American soldiers, wearing 'Old Glory' armbands specially and secretly made at the last minute in London, kept order among the cheering, V-sign-making crowds of Algerian citizens. 4. Guns beached from landing craft man-handled up the shore by British and U.S. troops.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright; Topical Press; Keystone







Meanwhile, east and west of Oran, the American army was getting ashore. At Arzeu Beach, to the east, opposition was overrun swiftly and landing operations began in excellent weather. To the west at "X" and "Y" beaches and at Les Andalouses there was no opposition.

Landings Near Oran

At once flying columns of armour from the extremities of the landing points swung deep into the country behind in a 70-mile-wide pincer movement. The attempt made to capture the aerodromes with parachute troops carried by the 12th U.S. Air Force (commanded by Brigadier-General James H. Doolittle, and flown from England) failed; but brilliant support from British escort carriers smashed the French fighter squadrons at La Senia and at Tafaroui. Though the French fought stubbornly, by nightfall on the Sunday it was clear that Oran could not endure the assault for long.

On Monday vigorous and stiffening resistance at St. Cloud, which had been the limit of advance on the Sunday evening, held up the infantry attack from the east







OCCUPATION OF STRATEGIC POINTS IN MOROCCO

In Morocco, Safi, Fedhala, and Mehdia were occupied by the Americans on November 10. Casablanca, bombarded and dive-bombed, and Rabat (the capital) were occupied next day, when the local commander, Admiral Michelier, requested an armistice. 1. A fort outside Safi in American hands. 2. Setting up a wireless communication station near Fedhala. 3. Major-General George S. Patton, commanding Allied forces in Morocco.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press; Keystone

under General Allen. On the west Brigadier-General Theodore Roosevelt, commanding the 26th Combat Team, was held on the high ridge of the Djebel Murdjadjo. But behind the battle of the infantry the claws of the armour had closed. The tanks of Combat Command "B"—the American armoured force under General Oliver—thrusting in through St. Barbe du Tlelat to Tafaroui and up the road to La Senia, were about to link with another section of the same force under Colonel (afterwards Brigadier-General) P. M. Robinnet coming from the western beaches along the northern shore of the great salt lake of the Grand Sebkra. That night Allen's infantry by-passed St. Cloud to north and south, and by dawn it was on the last of the heights above Oran. Admirable gunnery from the heavy ships of the Royal Navy was pounding the coastal batteries into submission. In the middle of the morning General Oliver threw his tanks into the city, the infantry came down the last slopes, and the battle was over.

At Casablanca they still fought. The French ships there put up a vigorous resistance, using submarines, destroyers, and the guns of the great battleship "Jean Bart." But the "Jean Bart" was bombed and put out of action, the destroyers were sunk; and at Mehdia, Fedhala, and Safi, as well as at Casablanca itself, troops got ashore and the beach-heads were secured. The useless fighting went on. But from the very start it was clear that Major-General George S. Patton, in command of the Allied forces in Morocco, had the situation completely in hand, and on Wednesday, November 11, all French resistance in North Africa ended by order of Admiral Darlan, Vichy Defence Minister, who happened to be on an inspection tour of French North Africa

Resistance from French Battleships



UNITED STATES TROOPS AT CASABLANCA

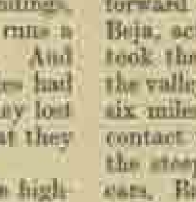
Following the cessation of French opposition in North Africa, Casablanca with its port installations became an important point of disembarkation for Allied troops, munitions, and supplies. Men of the U.S. Army, heavily loaded with equipment, are here seen getting ashore.

at the time of the Allied landings. The first phase of the campaign was over. The second was under way.

From Algiers to Tunis by sea is 395 miles. The Allies did not go by sea. It is essential in understanding the race for Tunis to have in mind a clear picture of the country involved. The two great mountain ranges of Northern Africa run parallel to the coast. Algiers is backed beyond the limits of the coastal plain by the ridges of the Maritime Atlas that march behind the coastline to the last low hills above Bizerta. South of the 7,000-foot peaks of the Maritime range lies the High Atlas that ends in the Aures Mountains above Tebessa. Between the great massifs run communicating spurs. It is a region of tremendous peaks, of deep valleys and high plateaux, diminishing slowly to the strip of the Tunisian coastal plain.

Across it run two roads, one clinging to the coastwise cliff, narrow, tortuous and difficult; one running across the high plateaux, 500 miles in its windings, to Tunis town. Between them runs a single line of doubtful railway. And over this brutal country the Allies had to run the race for Tunis. They lost that race in the very moment that they entered the straight.

There was no opposition in the highlands. From Algiers to Constantine, from Constantine to Souk Ahras and over the last great ramparts of the Medjerda Mountains down into the valley of the Kroumirie, the first elements moved unharassed. As the first formation went over the high passes the Allies began to test the little ports—Bougie, Djejeli and Philippeville. By November 13, British destroyers were in the harbour of Bône. On the 14th at dawn the "Beatrice" and the "Emma" had landed a harbour party of five officers and 26 ratings and a commando force to take over the aerodrome. By November 17 a tanker was landing petrol—the life-blood of a modern army. The Allies had a forward base of sorts.



It is necessary again to visualize the country between Bône and Tunis. From Bône the coast road runs comparatively straight to Bizerta. It is not a good road and for most of its length it runs through deep scrub-covered valleys or over high, bare hills with great spurs and crests of rock. A north-south road links with the inland road near Souk Ahras. These two are the only roads of importance through the lessening hills to the town of Beja, capital of the ancient Roman grainlands. At Beja the mountain road splits into three. The northern arm makes a fresh communicating link with the coastal road; the centre arm, not then complete, cuts through the deep valley of Sidi Nsir to Mateur; and the third arm is the old main Carthaginian road to Tunis by the bridge of Medjez-el-Bab. At Medjez this third road again forks, the northern fork going to Tunis by way of Tebourba and Djedeida, the southern continuing straight across the low rolling hills to Tunis town. Knowledge of the roads is vital to an understanding of the campaign, for they conditioned the whole strategy of Lieut.-Gen. K. A. N. Anderson, who was in command of the British First Army in North Africa.

The Roads from Bône to Tunis

While the ground troops were still moving up on their long pilgrimage, a Battalion of Brigadier Flavell's Parachute Brigade flew past them and dropped, on November 17, in the middle of the wide valley of the Kroumirie at Souk-el-Arba. They established themselves without opposition on the aerodrome—it was a naked level,—commandeered French transport, and went forward next morning to Beja. From Beja, acting on local information, they took the centre road of the three into the valley of Sidi Nsir. On November 19, six miles beyond Sidi Nsir, they made contact with the enemy, ambushing on the steep hillside a patrol of armoured cars. Battle was joined.

The second, and perhaps the most important, fact to remember about the race for Tunis is that the First Army was not an army. The decision to call General Anderson's force by that name



LIEUT.-GEN. K. A. N. ANDERSON

Commander of the British First Army in North Africa, which, though it included Major-General Ryder's American forces of the Algiers expedition, was in fact not quite a division in fighting strength. Lt.-Gen. Anderson was responsible for the strategy of the attempt to take Tunis described in these pages. He had been in command of a division at Dunkirk, and had been appointed G.O.C. Eastern Command in April 1942. Inset: The Crusader flash worn by the British First Army. It was a white shield with a red cross on which was a white sword.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

led to much of the misconception and the misjudgement of the early days of the campaign. The force at General Anderson's disposal was not quite a division in fighting strength. That force he split into three sections. One half of his infantry swung up the coast road in an attempt to break through to Bizerta. The other he sent down the wide and easy main road from Beja to Medjez-el-Bab to take Tunis town by frontal assault. In the centre, through the defile of Sidi Nsir, he sent Blade Force, a composite, self-contained force of tanks with certain supporting elements.

The northern arm—it was in strength a weak brigade—consisted of three battalions of infantry with a handful of 25-pounder artillery. The force in the south consisted of three battalions of infantry. Blade Force consisted in the main of Crusader and Valentine tanks of the 17th/21st Lancers.

The Parachute Brigade made contact with the Germans 11 days after the initial landings. In those 11 days the Germans had not been idle. Vichy had declared that she would resist any attack whatever on her colonies. The Germans landed at El Aouina aerodrome, the great airport outside Tunis, unopposed. El Aouina had potentially a strong defence. They landed at Bizerta unopposed, they used the harbour installations unopposed—yet Bizerta had strong defences. The French army of Tunisia, cut down by the armistice terms, still numbered 15,000 men. It was dispersed over a considerable area of the country; but at Tunis and at Bizerta there were relatively strong forces, and at Bizerta they were backed by French naval elements.

There is not the slightest shadow of doubt that instant opposition on the part of the French—that instant opposition which met the Allies at Casablanca and at Oran—would have checked, even if it had not stopped, the German invasion. This was not in its opening stages the mighty onfall of a vast armada from the sea. It was a piecemeal thing of small airborne detachments hurriedly improvized out of anything from troops recuperating in France after the Russian front, to the personnel and instructors of glider training schools. In the first days, and in actual fact for nearly a week, it had no artillery other than mortars; it had no tanks; it had almost nothing in the way of armoured cars or of transport of any description save what it commandeered. Determined action on the part of the city garrisons of Tunis and Bizerta would have wrecked the initial stages of the German invasion.

German Invasion of Tunisia

There was no opposition. The French army of Tunisia fell back sullenly. It lay, for the most part, on General Anderson's right flank, an imponderable in those early days when no man could say on which side it would throw in its weight. Fifteen thousand men were more than the entire strength at General Anderson's disposal when he launched his attack.

None the less the attack went forward. The northern arm moved up the valley road through Djebel Abiod.









ORAN OPERATIONS

Stiff resistance met the Allied landings in the Oran area, but it was of short duration. 1. American troops marching along the quay at the important naval base of Mers-el-Kebir. 2. Maj.-Gen. Lloyd R. Fredendall, commanding the U.S. forces landed at Oran. 3. A landing craft carrying Rangers, the U.S. equivalent of Commandos, touches the shore at a point near Oran; and, 4. guns, vehicles, and supplies for the First Army unloaded on the quay at this port. The map shows the area covered by the military operations round Oran described in Chapter 256.

Photos, Fox Photos; Associated Press; British Newsreels Association; Topical Press







BRITISH PARACHUTE BRIGADE IN TUNISIA

Parachute troops in considerable force were used in the campaign in Tunisia, especially in efforts to forestall the enemy in securing control of aerodromes in the initial stages of the fighting. 1. Men of the 2nd Battalion of the Parachute Brigade resting after their drop at Depienne in November 1942 (see p. 2545). 2. Three German parachutists and an Italian soldier taken prisoner near Beja. 3. Units of the Parachute Brigade near Medjez-el-Bab. 4. Parachute troops successfully occupied this airfield in Tunisia; the patches of white on the ground in the middle distance are their discarded parachutes.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press







EMERGENCY AIRFIELD IN NORTH AFRICA

A Spitfire warms up on a newly laid runway. As the Allied forces advanced in French North Africa, men of the Royal Engineers and the Pioneer Corps, under the command of Major J. D. George, prepared emergency airfields. Runways were constructed by laying Coir matting under a Somerfeld track, which consisted of metal rods about nine inches apart held together by wire netting. For damaged aircraft making forced landings, land was prepared beside the runways, without the covering of Coir matting and Somerfeld track.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

advanced 20 miles, clashed there with German tanks, destroyed some of them, caused a few casualties and advanced to a little pass between two hills—and at those hills it stopped. German parachutists, under Colonel Witzig, had dug in on their summits and their flanks. They had sited there their heavy machine-guns and backed them with mortars. "Green Hill" and "Bald Hill" the men called those twin hummocks on either side of the lonely road. "Green Hill" and "Bald Hill" held us. They held not only that first rush, but they held throughout the whole campaign until the hectic day of May 3, 1943. The northern tine of the three-pronged attack was broken short.

The southern force pushed from Beja through Oued Zarga over the hills where the deep slit trenches marked the German positions, to the last slopes above Medjez-el-Bab, 35 miles from Tunis. Medjez was held in what was then called strength. The Lancashire Fusiliers cut through north of the town under the shadow of what afterwards became known as Longstop Ridge, and into the deep mud-walled canyon of the yellow Medjerda. They were caught there and pounded mercilessly by mortar fire. When they attempted to storm the walls of the river, the Germans brought

Lancashires Reach Medjez-el-Bab

up their first light tanks and wiped them out. They lost their colonel and most of their senior officers and a lamentable proportion of their men. This was the second check.

Blade Force, heavily bombed, swung down the steep valley to Sidi Nsir, crossed the high hills by the half-made road, and struck towards Tebourba, hampered by mortar fire and mines, by the German anti-tank guns, and by attacks from the air.

Coincidentally with this triple thrust, a parachute attack was made on Oudna aerodrome, south-west of Tunis. Originally the attack was planned as an attempt to take El Aouina aerodrome at Tunis, but the time for that had long since gone. The Germans were very firmly in possession of Tunis itself. It was decided, therefore, to send the 2nd battalion of the Parachute Brigade, with engineers, signallers and a mortar section, in an attempt to render useless the aerodrome at Oudna.

The battalion left in 42 D.C.3 American transport planes. Four failed to reach the objective. The rest dropped at Depienne in the area of Pont du Fahs at 3.10 in the afternoon. They retired to neighbouring hills immediately after the drop to re-form, and the following morning reconnoitred the aerodrome. Instead of Oudna being undefended, as Intelligence had believed, there were in position fixed defences and also armoured cars and light tanks. In the afternoon a frontal attack was made, and "C" company lost heavily, fighting first ten armoured cars and then tanks. They retired on the hills again, and that night "A" company attacked, destroyed three planes on the aerodrome, wrecked two armoured cars and the railway station, and put the aerodrome temporarily out of commission. On the third day they were heavily attacked by tanks and surrounded, but they broke through the ring, retiring in the direction from which they believed the main force would come.

Parachutists Dropped at Depienne

For five days they fought one of the most brilliant rearguard actions of the whole campaign. They were almost without food, utterly without water. At one point they found a tributary of the River Miliane, but it was salt. Yet they fought on. They were severely

CRUSADER TANKS IN THE UPLANDS OF TUNISIA

Crusader tanks, which played an important part in the victorious advance of the Eighth Army (see illus., pp. 2532-33), were used also in Tunisia; Blade Force, one of the sections into which General Anderson divided his forces, consisted in the main of Crusader and Valentine tanks of the 17th/21st Lancers. The Crusader used was a 15-ton tank mounted with a 6-pounder gun and having a speed of 30 m.p.h.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright





MAJOR HERBERT WALLACE Le PATOUREL, V.C.

At Tebourba on December 3, 1942, Major Le Patourel with only four volunteers silenced several enemy machine-gun posts occupying a position near his Company. His companions all killed or wounded, he went forward alone to attack at close quarters, and did not return. He was awarded the V.C., as it was thought, posthumously, but he had been wounded and taken prisoner. He received his decoration in person.

attacked by an Italian detachment, and wiped them out with knives alone. After a brisk engagement with a German force, they slipped south-west to the Plain of Goubellat. The survivors came up to the main Tunis road, and there fell in with a mixed reconnaissance column of British and American vehicles. They were still shaven, still smart; and their senior officer, as they made contact, held out his hand and said, politely, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume!"

The air was to play an important—perhaps very nearly a decisive—part in the last lap of the race. Souk-el-Arba was within bombing range of the enemy, but it was too far behind the real front for economic fighter cover. In those days, before the rains had come, it was possible to improvize landing strips at a score of places on the coastal plain. The Germans had their front-line aerodrome immediately below Djedeida town, at one time within range of our artillery. They had air superiority and they used it ruthlessly until the end of the race.

Despite that air superiority, however, Medjez fell on Thursday, November 26. General Walter Nehring, Rommel's second-in-command in the Western Desert and a leading German tank specialist, was in command of Axis forces in Tunisia.

German Strategy

He had staked everything on one bold decision. Massing his rapidly growing forces at Djedeida, 11 miles from Tunis, under Koch (who had captured Eben Emael in the advance on Belgium; see Chapter 84), he had thrown out a screen of well-sited mountain outposts to secure time to consolidate his position. Djedeida had the advantage of short supply lines from both Tunis and Bizerta: it lay on a cross-roads which gave him freedom of movement to challenge attacks from the north should the "Green Hill" defences go; from the centre should Blade Force break clean through; from the northern road out of Medjez; and it allowed him, by way of the road from St. Cyprian, to move swiftly against the flank of any attempt along the old Carthaginian road to Tunis itself.

Against the wall of these prepared positions the Brigade flung itself in a fury of gallantry. The Djedeida ridges held long enough for Gen. Nehring to bring up his first medium tanks of the 10th Panzer Division. Blade Force had been reinforced by American medium and light tanks of Combat Command "B," but even this new accretion of strength could not overcome the increasing strength of the defences, and the attackers lacked





IN BOMBED AND SHELLED TEBOURBA

Tebourba's shell-damaged station; right, German infantry in a battered street of the town. Around Tebourba raged some of the fiercest fighting in the Tunisian campaign. For four days, men of the First Army succeeded in defeating superior German forces; but on December 3, 1942, they were compelled to withdraw from the outskirts of the little town. *Photos, Associated Press*



ROADS TO TUNIS

Knowledge of the roads between Bône and Tunis is essential to an understanding of the campaign fought by the Allies for the possession of Tunis. Lieut.-General Anderson's strategy in the initial phase of the fighting, explained in the accompanying pages, can be easily followed on the map.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Ellis Garden*

always infantry to consolidate the gains the tanks had made. The Brigade broke itself vainly against Djedeida.

The Hampshires, who on the night of November 29, relieved the Northants in the advanced positions on the Djedeida-Tebourba road near the former village, endured five days that will live long in the history of British infantry.

Early on the morning of the 30th heavy mortar attacks began, supplemented with fire from heavy machine-guns. In the middle of the morning tanks came in to the attack; and with the tanks the German infantry came forward.

Allied Troops Forced Back

The Hampshires had only anti-tank rifles and mortars, but with these they fought off the attacks and destroyed at least two tanks. When the German infantry came in they met them with bayonet attacks, charging sometimes between the tanks that screened the infantry. Under overwhelming enemy pressure, however, they were gradually forced back, and eventually completely encircled by enemy infantry companies supported by tanks.

With a last charge into which all the available forces—riflemen, cooks and clerks—led by the colonel, were thrown, the remnants broke back to Tebourba; and from Tebourba they came back, the main body 40 men strong in charge of the chaplain. Scattered units, and men who had been cut off, eventually brought that total up to 150, but the Hampshires were out of the fight and the Northants had suffered intolerable loss.

The Allied forces fell back, fighting magnificently, upon Tebourba: and they abandoned Tebourba only when they had lost the heights that commanded it through the impossibility of spreading the diminishing infantry along the wide terrain. Bombed incessantly, harassed by the brilliant German mortar fire, battered by the heavy machine-guns to which they had no reply, the infantry fell back from Tebourba—and found time in its retreat to break a heavy German tank attack to westward of the town. At the end of ten days of ceaseless fighting they had fallen back to the circle of the low hills east of the Mejerda and north of Medjez-el-Bab, to a minefield covered by artillery astride the Tebourba road in what was called the "bottle-neck," and to the hills above the Sidi Nsir valley.

And the Germans were challenging them for the Medjez hills. On Sunday, December 6, they broke through the American line along the crests. After a day of hard fighting, the position was in some degree re-established, but the threat was clear; and on December 8 the rains came—the first blinding winter rains of the Tunisian mountains. Overnight the hard ground of the highlands turned to a thick, viscous clay: overnight tank warfare became uncertain and precarious. And then, with a superb impudence, Gen. Nehring decided to make a thrust to drive the Allies out of Medjez, and give himself the line of the Mejerda for his main defence. Using the metalled roads, he thrust with strong forces from Djedeida and from Massicault. The attempt almost succeeded. The American armour, hampered in its hill positions by the softness of the ground, had difficulty in coming to grips. On the very outskirts of Medjez village the attack was broken by the fire of British 25-pounders, American 105s, and French 75s.

And then in the darkness occurred one of the incalculable accidents of war. The American armour, outflanked by the German threat, attempted to withdraw across the Borj Toum bridge. In the confusion of the night the officer commanding the column made an error of judgement. By dawn Combat Command "B" had lost—not to the enemy but to the mud—most of its remaining tanks, a heavy proportion of its artillery, and a large number of its fighting and transport vehicles.

The race for Tunis was over. But if the Allies failed to take Tunis, they still held the hills. The Germans had saved Tunis, and over it they were to lose two armies.

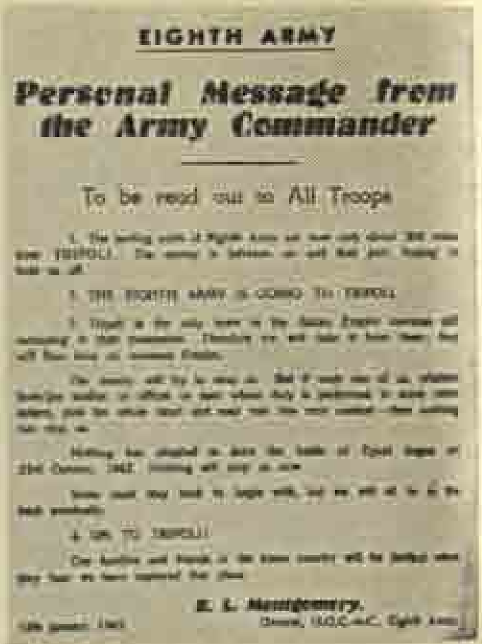
FROM EL ALAMEIN TO TRIPOLI IN 80 DAYS

The Battle of Egypt, described in Chapter 255, was followed by a swift pursuit of the disintegrating Afrika Korps across the 1,400 miles between El Alamein and Tripoli which, last important city of the Italian overseas empire in Axis hands, fell before Montgomery's relentless advance on January 22, 1943. The Eighth Army accomplished this 'miracle of dash and endurance' in some 80 days

The Eighth Army continued the pursuit. . . . These words appeared time and again in the bulletins issued from General Alexander's H.Q. in Cairo in the early days of November 1942. The nine days of hard slogging, infantry combat, mine detection and destruction, terrific aerial bombing and artillery bombardment, bore their fruit. A great gap had been torn in the enemy's front by Leese's men of the 30th Corps, and the fissure was fatal. Through it poured Lumsden's tanks of the 10th Armoured Corps, while Horrocks's 13th Corps cleaned up the Italians left behind in the dreary wastes beside Qattara.

The break-through was achieved on November 4. At Fuka there was a grim and savage combat between the British armour and the remains of German Panzer columns, in which almost the whole of the latter were destroyed, and by November 8 no enemy forces of any importance were left in Egypt. Mersa Matruh had fallen. Halfaya Pass, Sollum, Buqbuq and Capuzzo were jammed with traffic, bombed relentlessly by the R.A.F. (see illus., pp. 2380-81). What was left of Rommel's armour streamed away westward across the frontier, and every available truck was commandeered to permit the remnants of the Afrika Korps to escape from the field where everything had been lost. As for the Italians, they were left behind. Some fought gallantly enough; the others, and the majority, as soon as they realized their desertion by their German allies, stumbled wearily to the prisoner-of-war enclosures. The Italian prisoners were counted by the thousand, and for the most part their condition was appalling, since they had lain out for days in the unsheltered desert, now swept by heavy rainstorms, and had had little food and water. The British patrols who roamed the vast battlefield were engaged in truth on an errand of mercy as they put the humble victims of Mussolini's megalomania "in the bag."

Egypt Cleared of the Enemy


EIGHTH ARMY

Personal Message from the Army Commander

To be read out to All Troops

B. L. Montgomery.

MESSAGE FROM MONTGOMERY

The printed order from General Montgomery, dated January 12, 1943, distributed and read out to all men of the Eighth Army on the eve of the offensive in Tripolitania.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



SIGNBOARDS POINT TO A VANISHED CAMP

Signboards left by the side of the Alexandria–Mersa Matruh road when the great pursuit from El Alamein to Tripoli was on. Mostly in Italian, some in German, two in the universal language of the Red Cross, they give directions to various sections of a former enemy encampment. The soldier, a coloured South African, captured at Tobruk, was released when the Allies recaptured Mersa Matruh.

Photo, Sport & General

Sidi Barrani was recaptured by the 60th Rifles on November 10, and on the same day British armour cut off the German retreat by way of Halfaya. Far ahead, somewhere near Sollum, Montgomery's spearhead was thrusting fiercely at the fleeing mass on the road beside the Mediterranean. Halfaya Pass was occupied on November 11, and on the next day the Eighth Army overran the ruins of Bardia, Sollum, and Fort Capuzzo. El Adem aerodrome outside Tobruk was being attacked by the advanced guard. Then on November 13 Pienaar's South Africans stormed into Tobruk. To fill the cup of their triumph they found in the town a number of South African coloured auxiliary troops who had been captured with Tobruk by Rommel five months before.

That day Montgomery (just granted a knighthood and promoted General in honour of the Alamein victory) sent another message to his victorious troops. "When we began the battle of Egypt



VICTORS AND VANQUISHED PASS ON THE ROAD TO TRIPOLI

Six hundred of the 1,100 Axis prisoners—mostly Italians—captured when Halfaya Pass, scene of bitter fighting in earlier Libyan campaigns, was retaken with little resistance on November 11, 1942. They are trudging eastward to a prison camp in Egypt while supply vehicles of the Allies pass along the road in a continuous stream westward into Libya.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

on October 23," he recalled, "I said that we would hit the Germans and Italians for six right out of North Africa. We have made a very good start, and today there are no German and Italian soldiers on Egyptian territory except prisoners.

"In three weeks we have completely smashed the German and Italian army and pushed the fleeing remnants out of Egypt, having advanced ourselves nearly 300 miles up to and beyond the frontier." Four German divisions (15th and 21st Panzers, 90th and 164th Light); the 10th Italian Corps (Brescia, Pavia and Folgore divisions); the 20th Italian Corps (Ariete and Littorio armoured divisions, Trieste division); and the 21st Italian Corps (Trento and Bologna divisions) had ceased to exist. The prisoners numbered already 30,000. (A few days later Gen. Alexander estimated the total enemy loss at 75,000.) The enemy's losses in tanks, guns and aircraft were crippling. This was a very fine performance, concluded General Montgomery, but (he proceeded) "our task is not finished yet. The Germans are out of Egypt, but there are still some left in North Africa. There is some good hunting to be had farther to the west in Libya, and our leading troops are now in Libya ready to begin. On with the task, and good hunting to you all!"

Four Enemy Divisions Smashed

It was indeed a hunt, and a speedy one. On November 14 the Eighth



CHURCHILL TANKS WITH THE EIGHTH ARMY IN LIBYA

The Churchill tank, heavily armoured, moving at a speed of ten m.p.h. over any kind of ground despite its weight of 37 tons, and fitted with a 6-pounder gun, went into action for the first time in January 1943, during the pursuit of the Afrika Korps across Libya and Tripolitania. It was subsequently used in Tunisia, where, it was reported on February 28, 1943, nine Churchills near Sbiba had engaged 14 German tanks, destroying four of them for the loss of only one.



MAORIS FROM NEW ZEALAND WERE THERE

A convoy of New Zealand supply wagons passing the wrecked barracks of Sollum, scene of a brilliant action by Maori troops during Auchinleck's campaign when, left behind by the advancing 8th Army which bypassed Sollum, they took it at the point of the bayonet. Below, a Maori patrol racing through a street in damaged Bardia, reoccupied on November 12, 1942.
Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Army reached Tmimi, on the 15th Martuba, on the 16th Derna and Mekili, on the 17th Cirene; and on the 20th Benghazi was once again occupied by British and Dominion troops.

So far history had repeated itself. Men's eyes were fixed anxiously on the spot marked El Agheila on the map. Would Rommel stand again where he had stood before? And if he made a stand, would he be able to recruit his strength and set the pendulum of battle swinging violently back again towards Egypt? General Alexander told the correspondents at Cairo that Rommel and his Afrika Korps had been "knocked groggy," but they had shown no weakness at Alamein and stiff fighting must still be expected. Probably at Agheila . . .

Afrika Korps 'Knocked Groggy'

By the end of November Rommel was dug in at Agheila and doing his utmost to restore his shattered legions. From Sicily transports and supply ships ran the gauntlet of the British submarines, and the roads from Tripoli were busy with trucks. But by now the Anglo-American thrust in Tunisia was making itself felt, and not all Rommel's demands for men and equipment were met. For days patrol activity continued: the communiqués reported "No change in Cyrenaica." But on December 12 Montgomery, who had been quietly massing for the assault, resumed the offensive. Terrific bombing and shelling forced the enemy to abandon his very strong position at Mersa Brega, and he withdrew from El Agheila shortly afterwards, not making any serious attempt to withstand the weight of the Eighth Army's onslaught. Once again the Afrika Korps plunged down the coastal road, closely pursued by Montgomery's armoured cavalry, while the R.A.F. pounded and blasted the retreating columns.



Between Wadi Matratin and the Italian memorial dubbed by the British Tommy "Marble Arch" there was "confused and swirling fighting" on December 16 and 17, when forward elements of the Eighth Army (elements which had been dispatched three days before by Gen. Montgomery and had covered a hundred miles of desolate sand dunes and rocky wadis, following a disused track that had been discovered by his intelligence officers) emerged from the desert, struck suddenly northwards to the sea and cut Rommel's fleeing host in two. A considerable force was cornered, and

Fleeing Enemy Host Cut in Two



A.A. GUN USED AS FIELD GUN NEAR MEDJEZ-EL-BAB

Medjez-el-Bab on the river Medjerda, about 32 miles from Tunis, and 43 from Bizerta, was captured by the British First Army on November 27, 1942, after stiff enemy resistance. Gunners of the First Army have here converted their A.A. gun to use as a field gun to counter enemy artillery fire and protect the Royal Engineers as they were repairing a bridge demolished by the retreating enemy. *Photo, British Official*



H.M.S. 'RODNEY' AT MERS-EL-KEBIR

More than 350 ships of the Royal Navy and the U.S. and Allied Navies escorted the armada—well over 500 ships strong—which brought the Allied troops to French North Africa. After the landings, units of the Royal Navy—among them H.M.S. 'Rodney'—lay off Mers-el-Kebir, the naval base and military port near Oran, scene (with Oran) of the 'melancholy action' of July 3, 1940, when ships of the French Navy were attacked and rendered useless by the Royal Navy to prevent their falling into the hands of the Germans.



ALLIES IN BONE HARBOUR

At Bône, 50 miles from the Tunisia border and 120 miles from the naval base and port of Bizerta, British and U.S. forces of the British First Army were first landed on November 12, 1942. Reinforcements in men and supplies continued to be brought in through Bône during the North African campaign. Naval ratings from the cruiser H.M.S. 'Argonaut' are here seen with soldiers of an anti-aircraft battery. 'Argonaut' was one of a British naval force which, without damage or casualties, sank four merchant vessels and three Italian destroyers in a vigorous action on the night of December 1-2, 1942.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

OUTPOST IN TUNISIA

Towards the middle of December 1942 the Allies were holding a straightened line in Tunisia, between Djedeida and Mateur, their operations being much hampered by rain and mud. Here are a First Army Bren gunner and his observer occupying a forward post in the hills near Mateur

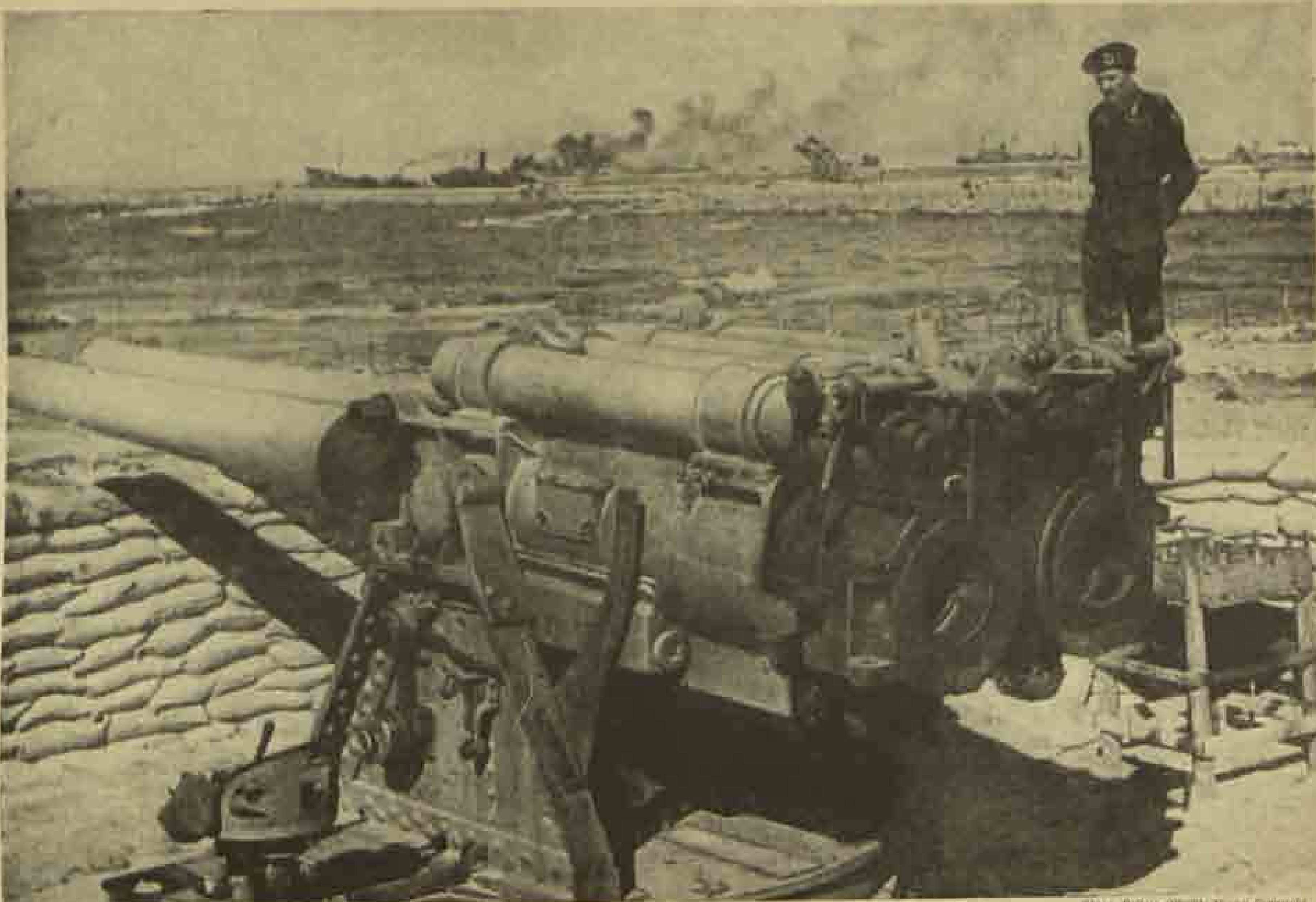




ENEMY TANK CASUALTIES

Despite adverse weather conditions, and the resultant bogging of the terrain, which rendered tank manoeuvring difficult, there were a number of armoured clashes in Tunisia during November and December 1942. These two light German tanks were put out of action by British armour near Mateur

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

COMMANDER OF THE EIGHTH ARMY INSPECTS BENGHAZI'S SEA DEFENCES

When Benghazi was recaptured by the 8th Army on November 20, 1942, its harbour was choked with the wreckage of shipping destroyed from the air; but work was begun straight away on clearing it, and as early as the 24th an Allied ship was able to berth there. Benghazi became the base for the landing of supplies and reinforcements during the period from November 27 to December 13, when General Montgomery paused to consolidate his gains and prepare for the next stage of his campaign—the advance on El Agheila.



FROM EL ALAMEIN TO TRIPOLI IN 80 DAYS

After defeating the Afrika Korps in the Battle of Egypt, General Montgomery took only 80 days to drive the disorganized remnants of that once-mighty force the 1,400 miles to Tripoli. His advance was held up by weather, minefields, booby traps and destroyed roads; but nowhere did the demoralized enemy make a serious stand. This map gives the dates on which Allied advanced units first reached successive places en route; the dates in Chapter 257 are those on which these places were fully occupied.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR *by Felix Gardon*

although some of the German tanks and infantry succeeded in breaking out to the west, most of the trapped formation was accounted for.

After this brilliant little stroke, Montgomery resumed the pursuit in strength. On Christmas Day Sirte was occupied, but then heavy rain and dust storms took it in turn to hamper operations. Rommel seized the respite to dig in at Buerat; but after a fortnight's preparation Montgomery's troops overwhelmed the enemy lines on January 15, 1943. Rommel did not stay to meet Montgomery's full strength, but slipped away once more to the west. The pursuit was continued, and there was no stopping the pursuers now. On they pressed, driving the enemy from one battered township after another: Misurata on January 18, Homs on the 20th, El Azizi on the 21st, Castelverde on the 22nd. Rommel's rearguards put up a good show, but they were swept aside by Montgomery's veterans.

Sirte Occupied

Before the offensive started in October, "Monty" was reported to have told the war correspondents that Tripoli would be in Allied hands on January 22. He was as good as his word. Before nightfall on the appointed day British columns were in the city's suburbs, and at dawn on January 23 Montgomery stood on the Djebel heights and watched his victorious troops stream along the roads and tracks into the capital of Tripolitania, the last city of Italy's once great imperial dominion. From the south marched in the New Zealanders and two columns of British armour. The Highlanders of the 51st Division entered by way of the coast road from the east. Another column approached from the west. When Montgomery gave the signal—at 5 a.m. on January 23—the entry in full force began; but an hour before a patrol of 11th Hussars had driven into the city and out again. "If anybody deserves the honour of being the first in Tripoli," wrote Alexander Clifford, the famous correspondent of the Daily Mail, "it was these Hussars, who have been so long in the desert that they glory in the nickname of 'The Desert Rats'." Seven Gordon Highlanders clinging to



'THE PRIEST' PREPARES FOR ACTION

Because from certain angles it looked against the turret behind it like a parson in a pulpit, the 8th Army gave the nickname 'The Priest' to the 105-mm. self-propelled gun-howitzer, which was mounted on a General Grant tank chassis that also carried an A.A. gun. Part of America's contribution to the 8th Army's armament in the Battle of Egypt, it proved a most useful weapon against the 88-mm. high-velocity anti-tank gun of the Germans. *Photo, British Official*



FRIENDLY DEMONSTRATIONS IN DERNA

Derna, abandoned by the Axis forces in their headlong retreat westward after the Battle of Egypt, was occupied by the 8th Army on November 15. The first Britons to enter it were war correspondents and a few officers, three of whom are here seen, followed by a crowd of excited young Arabs, approaching the town hall. Thirty-three British wounded prisoners were found in hospital; they managed to improvise a Union Jack, which was hoisted above the town hall.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



TANKS ON BENGHAZI WATERFRONT

Column of General Stuart tanks entering Benghazi when it was retaken by the 8th Army on November 20, 1942. The cathedral in the background appears to have suffered little damage though it lies so near the waterfront. A number of Empire prisoners—mostly Indians—were released by the arrival of the British.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

a tank were the first British infantry to enter the city. Close behind (said Clifford) were "Seaforth Highlanders . . . singing machine-gunners of the Middlesex Regiment, and men of the Buffs and the Queen's followed."

The formal surrender of the city was tendered to Gen. Montgomery at noon, as he stood at the Porto Benito crossroads just outside the wall, by the Lord Mayor of Tripoli, the Vice-Governor of Libya, and the Prefect. The Italians were in full uniform glittering with decorations. The General was wearing battledress, two sweaters (of different colours) and his famous beret. The little ceremony was soon over. "I have nothing against the civilian population," said Montgomery, "provided it remains orderly. My war is against the Italian and German armies." Then inside the city he took the salute. To the skirl of the bagpipes his men passed by in triumphant procession and the Union Jack fluttered high above the city hall.

The Fall of Tripoli

The news of Tripoli's fall was broadcast from Rome. "The great battle of the past 32 months on the African coast and in the Mediterranean has reached its end . . . the enemy can justly claim a victory, but he has paid dearly for it. Our sacrifice of this territory is very painful, because the regions concerned have belonged to Italy for a third of a century and have been fertilized with much blood." A few hours after the victory parade the commander of the Eighth Army made his acknowledgements to the men he had led to so great a triumph. "I have nothing but praise for the men of the Eighth Army: they have done what I expected of them."

From El Alamein to Tripoli is a matter of 1,400 miles—about the distance of Moscow from Paris, of New York from New Orleans. The Eighth Army covered the distance in some 80 days, their average rate of advance being 17½ miles a day, or 30 miles a day if the major pauses at El Agheila and Buerat are excluded. It was not an unopposed advance, said Sir James Grigg, Britain's War Minister, in a special broadcast on January 23; all the time there was fighting. It had been a miracle of dash and endurance by the fighting troops, but it was also a miracle of organization, of ceaseless effort, of complete devotion by the administrative services. The Western Desert is threaded by rough, ill-defined tracks, and by one good road with an asphalt surface which runs the whole distance, keeping all the way to the





TOBRUK ONCE MORE IN BRITISH HANDS

When South African cars entered Tobruk on the morning of November 13, 1942, they found only a few Germans to take prisoner—Rommel had evacuated this scene of the famous eight months' siege of 1941 without a blow. Above, men of the Queen's Royal Regt. marching into the town. Left, hoisting the Union Jack in place of the Swastika. Below, the first Allied supply ship to moor in Tobruk after its re-occupation by British troops. Its cargo is being discharged into tank landing craft lying alongside.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright









TRIPOLI—LAST CITY OF ITALY'S AFRICAN EMPIRE—SURRENDERS TO THE ALLIES

Top left: The Lieutenant-Governor of Libya, Commendatore San Marco, with the Prefect of Tripolitania and the Mayor of Tripoli, met General Montgomery at the Castel Benito gate into Tripoli and formally surrendered the city to him on January 23, 1943; after which the Union Jack was run up over the principal buildings as the British authorities took control. Bottom left, tank crews cheer the flag at the Guard House near the harbour. Right, 'Entry into Tripoli'—the historic scene as recorded by the official New Zealand artist, Captain Peter McIntyre.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Capt. McIntyre's painting by courtesy of the New Zealand Government

coastal region. There was one railway, from the Nile Valley to Tobruk, very largely constructed since Wavell's offensive in 1940; once again in British hands, it was worked with the punctuality of a railway at home, bringing up scores of thousands of tons of supplies. The rule was "supplies must get through," and the work was carried out, to the limits of what was possible, to an imperative time table, over some of the worst going in the world, along a route strewn with mines. An elaborate gradation of aid detachments and workshops retrieved the transport cripples and put them on the road again; thousands of craftsmen laboured to keep the vehicles in action: and more thousands toiled in keeping the road surface in good repair.

Rommel fled as Montgomery advanced, but fleeing, he had the advantage of prepared dumps along the road from which he could draw supplies, while our men had to carry everything, in particular water and petrol. And what that meant is seen from the fact that during one week in a later stage of the advance over 3,000,000 gallons of petrol were delivered at the front, and over 8,000 tons of ammunition.

Supply Problems of the Eighth



'MARBLE ARCH,' LIBYA

This triumphal archway of marble, erected by the Fascist Italian government about 40 miles west of El Agheila to mark the half-way point on the coast road from Tripoli to Egypt, was nicknamed Marble Arch by the British troops—a name also given to the near-by desert airfield which served as a forward base for Rommel's fighters until it was made untenable by constant R.A.F. attacks in the first week of December 1942.



SIX-POUNDER IN ACTION

British 6-pounder anti-tank guns helped the Eighth Army to blast its way successfully across Libya in the winter of 1942-43. Below is one firing at an enemy strong-point in the hills of Tripolitania shortly before Tripoli was captured. A wounded member of the crew is receiving first aid.

On an average each man required five lb. weight of food (and containers) per day, as well as 50 cigarettes and two boxes of matches a week. As for water, the Eighth Army wanted 5,000 tons of water a day, and very small quantities were available in the local wells. Half of it was brought from the Nile, along a pipeline to Tobruk; another 1,500 tons of Nile water were shipped daily to Benghazi, 300 tons were landed on the beaches from lighters, and

the balance of 700 tons was conveyed to the forward troops by water-companies operating with water waggons and metal containers holding four gallons each. Well might Sir James Grigg dilate on the "unparalleled feat of military organization that has flung so great a force at such a speed across an inhospitable desert," and pay a special tribute to the Quartermaster-General, Gen. Lindsell, and his staff, and the men on the lines of communication—the Royal Engineers, the Service Corps, the Ordnance, the R.E.M.E. and the R.A.M.C. Nor did he forget to praise the magnificent work of the Royal Navy, in supplying the Army along the shore and in taking so heavy a toll of the ships conveying supplies and reinforcements to Rommel.





FRESH WATER FOR THE MEN OF THE EIGHTH ARMY

Supplying more than 5,000 tons of fresh water a day for the men of the 8th Army in their rapid advance from El Alamein to Tripoli presented even greater difficulties than providing them with food. Half was carried from the Nile along a pipe-line to Tobruk, thence overland; and the Royal Navy helped by delivering water in drums, each containing 44 gallons: 1,500 tons, also from the Nile, were shipped to Benghazi daily, 300 tons were landed on beaches from lighters. The rest came from local wells—as at Sirte, where this tank being filled was situated.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

Yet a few days more, and in the House of Commons on February 11 the Prime Minister spoke again in glowing terms of the Desert Army. "I have never in my life, which from my youth up has been connected with military matters, seen troops with the style and air of those of the Desert Army. Talk about 'spit and polish'! The Highland and New Zealand Divisions paraded after their immense ordeal in the desert as if they had come out of Wellington Barracks. There was an air on the face of every private of that just and sober pride which comes from dear-bought victory and triumph after toil." Then came recognition of the two commanders: Montgomery, "this vehement and formidable general, a Cromwellian figure, austere, severe, accomplished, tireless, his life given to the study of war, who has attracted to himself in an extraordinary measure the confidence and the devotion of the Army;" and Alexander, "on whom the overriding responsibility lay."

Parade After Victory

Then Mr. Churchill referred to the directive he had given Alexander in the critical days of the previous August (see page 2527), and went on: "I have now received the following special communication from General Alexander, to which it will be necessary for us to send a reply: 'Sir, the orders you gave me on August 15, 1942, have been fulfilled. His Majesty's enemies, together with their impedimenta, have been completely eliminated from Egypt, Cyrenaica, Libya, and Tripolitania. I now await your further instructions.'"

A fortnight after Tripoli's fall Mr. Churchill arrived there to review the conquerors. "The fame of the Desert Army has spread throughout the world," he told the assembled troops. ". . . I am here to thank you on behalf of H.M. Government, of the British Isles, and of all our friends the world over. I do so from the bottom of my heart. Hard struggles lie ahead. Rommel, the fugitive of Egypt, Cyrenaica, and Tripolitania, in a non-stop race of 1,400 miles, is now trying to present himself as the deliverer of Tunisia. But," he went on, "the days of your victories are by no means at an end, and with forces which march from different quarters we may hope to achieve the final destruction or expulsion from Africa of every armed German or Italian." In the years after the war they would be able to boast that "I marched and fought with the Desert Army"; and "when history is written and all the facts are known, your feats will gleam and glow and will be the source of song and story long after those of us gathered here have passed away."

Diary of the War

NOVEMBER and DECEMBER, 1942

November 1, 1942. Russian counter-offensive in Stalingrad factory area. On Guadalcanal, U.S. Marines advanced two miles to the west.

November 2. Russians evacuated Nalchik (Caucasus). In Egypt, 8th Army launched heavy offensive with strong tank support; great tank battle raged throughout the day round Tel-el-Aqqaqir (The Hill of the Wicked). Australians recaptured Kokoda (New Guinea).

November 3. In Stalingrad, enemy launched five unsuccessful attacks. In heavy night fighting British armoured units took Tel-el-Aqqaqir; Eighth army advanced steadily during the day.

November 4. Russians repulsed more fierce attacks in Stalingrad. Axis forces in the Western Desert in full retreat.

November 5. Repeated enemy attacks in Stalingrad repulsed with heavy losses. Armistice signed by British and Vichy authorities ended Madagascar hostilities.

November 6. Large German infantry and tank attacks in Stalingrad factory area repulsed. Concentrated night attack on Genoa by strong force of bombers.

November 7. Germans driven from two strong-points in Stalingrad; enemy attack smashed south-east of Nalchik. Even heavier air attack on Genoa.

November 8. Fives-Lille steelworks and Abbeville airfield bombed; strong opposition. Mersa Matruh recaptured; no enemy forces of any importance left in Egypt. Strong American forces under Lt.-Gen. Eisenhower landed at midnight of November 7-8 in Algeria and French Morocco. Algiers occupied.

November 9. Naval engagement off Casablanca in which French battleship "Jean Bart" was damaged. Vichy broke off diplomatic relations with U.S.A. Chinese captured positions near Tsinsheng (S. Shansi).

November 10. Sidi Barrani recaptured; Knighthood conferred on Lt.-Gen. B. L. Montgomery, also promoted full general. Oran and Mers-el-Kebir occupied, and all effective Vichy resistance ended in Algeria; Safi, Fedhala, and Mehdia in Morocco occupied.

November 11. Axis troops began occupation of Vichy France (except Toulon). Halfaya Pass (Egypt) captured. Admiral Darlan ordered cessation of French resistance in North Africa. Capture of Oivi (New Guinea) by Allies.

November 12. Eighth Army occupied Bardia and Sollum. British and U.S. forces landed at Bône (Algeria).

November 13. Eighth Army retook Tobruk and Gazala.

November 14. Bitter hand-to-hand fighting in Stalingrad. Eighth Army reached Tmimi; no effective enemy rearguard action. Axis forces landed at Bizerta (Tunisia); Allied reinforcements landed at Bône. Wairopi (New Guinea) recaptured by Australians.

November 15. Eighth Army occupied Martuba. In the Solomons, a three-day naval battle (13th–15th) resulted in enemy loss of two battleships, eight cruisers, six destroyers, and twelve troop transports.

November 17. Derna and Mekili (Libya) occupied by 8th Army. Hufoo-kang (E. Honan) recaptured by Chinese.

November 18. British First Army entered Tunisia; 8th Army at Cyrene.

November 19. Germans severely defeated near Ordzonikidze (Caucasus).

November 20. Enemy in full retreat from Ordzonikidze. Turin heavily attacked by home-based bombers. Eighth Army occupied Benghazi. Bitter fighting in Buna-Gona area (New Guinea).

November 21. Mingaladon and Toungoo airfields (Burma) heavily attacked by R.A.F.

November 22. Powerful Red Army offensive on Stalingrad front announced. Stuttgart heavily bombed at night. Heavy day and night raids by R.A.F. on Akyab and Magwe airfields (Burma).

November 23. Rapid advance of Red Army on the Don. Eighth Army occupied Ajedabia and Jalo (Libya). Hankow docks fired by U.S. dive-bombers.

November 24. Twenty-five mile advance by Red Army north-west of Stalingrad; three German divisions captured with their commanders near Kletskaya.

November 27. British 1st Army occupied Medjez-el-Bab (Tunisia). Toulon entered by Germans; most of French warships there scuttled. Strong U.S. bomber formations bombed Canton docks.

November 28. Continued advance of Red Army on all sectors of Don-Stalingrad front; Kletskaya recaptured. R.A.F. used 8,000-lb. bombs for first time in heavy raid on Turin. Airfields in Burma bombed by R.A.F.

November 29. Further Red Army advances near Stalingrad. Djedeida captured by 1st Army (Tunisia). Attu (Aleutians) reoccupied by Japanese.

November 30. Japanese landing on Guadalcanal prevented by U.S. Navy task force—10 Japanese warships, three transports sunk; one U.S. cruiser sunk.

December 1. Enemy retreating on Rzhev front (Russia). Toungoo and Akyab aerodromes (Burma) bombed by R.A.F. Japanese attempts to land troops at Buna (New Guinea) smashed by Allied air forces.

December 3. Heavy enemy counter-attack in Tebourba area (Tunisia) repulsed. American dive-bombers prevented landing of enemy troops on Guadalcanal.

December 4. Russian advance continued on Stalingrad and Rzhev fronts. Admiral Darlan assumed leadership of French Colonial Empire.

December 5. Don crossed in three places in surprise attack by Red Army. Tebourba (Tunisia) evacuated by Allies; Djedeida recaptured by enemy.

December 6. Heavy day attack by R.A.F. on Philips radio factory, Eindhoven.

December 9. Enemy counter-attacks near Stalingrad repulsed; 13 enemy strong-points in Stalingrad reduced. Turin heavily bombed by R.A.F. Gona (New Guinea) captured by Australians.

December 10. Two enemy attacks by tanks and infantry near Medjez-el-Bab (Tunisia) repulsed. Japanese bombers raided Chittagong (Bengal).

December 11–12. Formation of 11 Japanese destroyers heading for Guadalcanal attacked by U.S. aircraft and M.T.B.s; eight sunk or damaged.

December 13. Eighth Army occupied Mersa Matruh.

December 14. Salient driven into Russian position in Kotelnikovo area; enemy dislodged from more positions in Stalingrad. Naples heavily bombed by Allied aircraft based on Africa. Buna village (New Guinea) captured by Americans.

December 16. New Soviet offensive opens on Middle Don.

December 17. Kiska (Aleutians) strongly attacked by U.S. Liberators.

December 18. Malta, after long respite, attacked by large bomber force.

December 19. Nofilia (Tripolitania) evacuated by enemy. French forces in North Africa capture position near Kairouan. Maungdaw–Buthidaung area (Burma) occupied by Anglo-Indian troops.

December 20. Soviet armies on the Don advanced 45–75 miles since December 16. Enemy aircraft-repair depot at Romilly-sur-Seine heavily attacked in daylight by Allied bombers and fighters. First air raid on Calcutta. Kiska heavily bombed by U.S. aircraft.

December 21. Red Army advanced further 12–18 miles on Middle Don. Munich heavily bombed at night.

December 22–27. Soviet advance on Middle Don continued rapidly.

December 24. New Russian offensive near Nalchik (Caucasus). Two Japanese attacks in Arakan district (Burma) repulsed by Anglo-Indian forces. Main defences of Buna airfield (New Guinea) overrun by Australian and American infantry. Admiral Darlan assassinated.

December 25. Eighth Army occupied Sirte (Tripolitania).

December 26. Red Army recaptured Alagir and Krasnogorsk (Caucasus).

December 27. Tenth U.S.A.A.F. heavily bombed Bangkok (Siam). Severe fighting in Buna area (New Guinea). General Giraud chosen High Commissioner in French North Africa.

December 28. General de Gaulle broadcast welcome to Giraud.

December 29. Kotelnikovo recaptured by Soviet Army after bitter street fighting. 5,000-ton tanker sunk at Rangoon by U.S. bombers.

December 30. Lorient U-boat base heavily bombed. Day and night attacks on Kyauktaw and Akyab by R.A.F.

December 31. Enemy in full retreat from Kotelnikovo; more places recaptured on Middle Don; Soviet troops crossed River Terek.

Chapter 258

FRANCE UNDER GERMAN RULE: JULY—DEC. 1942

During the second half of 1942, the differentiation between occupied and unoccupied France disappeared: the Anglo-American landings in French North Africa in November were the signal for German and Italian forces to overrun the whole country, and for the abandonment of the pretence that the Vichy Government was in control of even a part of France. This Chapter continues the history of France under the Nazis from Chapter 219

Of the many grave problems facing the Laval Government in July 1942, that of supplying French workers to ease the acute shortage of skilled labour in the Reich continued to be one of the most prominent. The propaganda drive for more workers, intensified by the opening of 27 recruiting offices—17 of them in the Paris area alone—had proved a dismal failure. Only 170,000 French workers (including 30,600 women) had left for Germany by July 3, and of these all but 1,000 had already enlisted before Laval's campaign was inaugurated. In an address at Tulle on July 8 Marshal Pétain appealed to French workers to take up war work in Germany and thereby release war-prisoners for work on French farms.

The measure of Vichy's desperation to help herself by helping Germany can be gauged by three facts: the announcement in the German economic paper "Der Deutsche Volkswirt" that Laval had agreed to the transfer of thousands of Arabs from North Africa to Germany for work in factories and farms; by a continuation of the German-imposed policy of closing down French factories in the unoccupied zone on the plea of a "lack of raw materials, coal and energy, and irrational production" (thereby offering sound reasons for transferring the newly unemployed workers to German industry); and an increase of working hours.

On August 9 another 1,000 prisoners of war were released, followed on August 27 by the release, for "exemplary conduct" by the population of Dieppe during the Allied raid, of 800 prisoners whose homes were in the Dieppe area. This grandiloquent gesture on Hitler's part came after Laval's address to the 1,000 returned prisoners at Compiègne on August 11, when he said that the day of "mass liberations" was past, and that Germany needed 150,000 specialized workers for her war factories, in exchange for which Hitler would release 50,000 prisoners of war.

On August 22 the German "General Commissioner for the Employment of Labour," Sauckel, issued a decree stipulating that from September 1 "all prisoners of war and foreign workers in Germany as well as all civilian workers in occupied countries would be subject to the same rigorous conditions applying to German workers, including a 54-hour week and drastic penalties for absenteeism, indolence and changing of jobs without permission." The decree also stipulated that all labour becoming available in occupied France through the closing of factories or lengthening of the working week would be transferred to Germany.

Germans Fail to Recruit French Workers

The harshness of this decree, however, met with such stiff opposition from Vichy that it was rescinded as regards occupied France. French workers would be "requested" but not compelled to go to Germany; but the condition was accepted that the 150,000 specialized workers be recruited by October 15. Twelve days before this, a grim prophecy of things to come was given by M. Chaffeigne, Director of Labour Propaganda, in a broadcast from Toulouse. "Unless the workers respond," he said, "I very much fear that even here in this zone—which believes itself to be free, but is so only in appearance—matters will soon be out of our hands." The same day (October 3) it was announced that a full census of workers was to be submitted by all employers.

By October 15 it was apparent that the recruitment of the workers was sadly behind schedule (only 1,500 workers a day, some 45,000 a month, were leaving for Germany), and the period of grace was accordingly extended to October 31. The next day all Frenchmen between 18 and 50 were ordered to register at *mairies* before October 29 under penalty of fines.

On October 20 Laval broadcast a new appeal for workers to go to Germany. The higher interests of France, he said, demanded the pursuit of a policy of agreement with Germany. If Germany were beaten, Bolshevism would rule Europe. He concluded with an appeal to Frenchmen to obey the Government's orders



HOME AFTER TWO YEARS IN GERMAN PRISON CAMPS

Two years after the signing of the Franco-German armistice, only a few thousand of the 1,256,671 French prisoners of war in Germany had been repatriated. A further 800, whose homes were in the Dieppe area, were released on August 27, 1942, in recognition of what Hitler called the 'exemplary conduct' of local inhabitants during the British raid on Dieppe on August 19. Some of this contingent are here seen arriving at Serqueux in Normandy.

Photo, Associated Press







RESTRICTED SUPPLIES FOR THE FRENCH

Housewives waiting at Vichy for their four-weekly ration of methylated spirit with which to cook. Through the American Red Cross, the people of the United States sent 18,000 tons of flour to unoccupied France. Right, a bag of the flour displayed in a Marseilles shop, with a notice: "Our product is made with flour sent by the U.S.A. Let us thank the Americans." Second right, a tobacco queue in Marseilles on ration day.

Photos, Pictorial Press

A statement of great significance and one showing deep insight into French politics was given to the British Press on July 27 by M. André Philip, Socialist member of the Chamber of Deputies for the Rhône and Professor of Political Economy at Lyons University, following his escape from France.

"Last year," said M. Philip, "a definite cleavage existed between the occupied and unoccupied zones." In the former resistance was very strong, the Vichy Government was non-existent, and there was a straight division between "collaborationists" and those supporting General de Gaulle. In the unoccupied zone, however, the question was complicated by the personal prestige of Marshal Pétain, with his last-war reputation and his "grandfatherly manner." At his side, ultra-reactionary elements of the *haute bourgeoisie*, including big industrialists and financiers and local dignitaries in rural areas, constituted the so-called Vichy Government. A radical change had, however, occurred last winter, when life became terribly hard in such cities as Lyons and Marseilles, owing to the German plundering of French economic resources, and at the same time a revolt developed against the Vichy Government which, ostensibly based on authoritarian principles, actually existed in complete anarchy. The so-called corporative system, the Committees of Industrial Organisation, *etc.*, were anarchic in their working.

Nazi Plunder of France

An indirect confession of the failure of the Anti-Bolshevist Legion—founded by Eugène Deloncle as a recruiting agency for the German Army, enlisting especially French Fascist sympathizers for service on the Russian front—was forthcoming in mid-July with the announcement that this legion had become the *Légion Tricolore*, headed by Raymond Lachal, Laval's right-hand man. Referring to the new legion at a ceremony on July 12, Joseph Darnand, Inspector-General of the *Service d'Ordre des Légionnaires* (set up in February 1942 as the Legion's "weapon of direct action in the fight of the revolutionary forces of our country against those who wish to maintain an order which we want to abolish"), stated that the *Légion Tricolore* would, if necessary, fight for the Axis in Europe and in Africa.

The creation of the *Légion Tricolore* was followed by a drive for recruits, which went on in both zones and in North Africa. Describing its functions as "to intervene where the interests of France or her Empire make it necessary," the *Légion Tricolore* was given formal recognition at a ceremony in Paris on August 28, attended by Admiral Darlan, De Brinon and Abetz.

The French Parliament, transferred from Vichy to Chatel-Guyon in August



SCUTTLED 'STRASBOURG' IN TOULON HARBOUR

At 4 a.m. on November 27, 1942, in spite of Hitler's promises, the Germans entered Toulon, where a large part of the French Navy lay at anchor. The Luftwaffe dropped magnetic mines at the harbour entrance to prevent the escape of the French warships, while German armoured columns raced to the docks. Admiral Jean de Laborde, asked to surrender his ships, immediately gave orders to scuttle, and an explosion on the 'Strasbourg' was the signal for the scuttling of most of the fleet of battleships, cruisers, destroyers, and submarines—some 230,000 tons of naval shipping in all. The 26,000-ton battleship 'Strasbourg,' launched in 1936, and here seen rusting away on the bottom of Toulon harbour, was one of the finest of the ships lost in this heroic act of self-sacrifice which cost the lives of many French sailors. (See also illus., p. 2400.)

1941 (*see* Chapter 202), suffered what in effect amounted to its death-blow by a decree signed by Marshal Pétain and Laval on August 26 eliminating the offices of MM. Edouard Herriot and Jules Jeanneney, respectively Presidents of the Chamber and Senate, and transferring the functions of the Bureaux of both Chambers to a Government Commissioner. This decree, ironically signed on the anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of Man in 1789, while leaving Parliament with a theoretical existence, in effect abolished it, its plenary powers having legally expired on June 1, 1942.

The continued existence of the Parliamentary Bureaux, said Vichy, was inconsistent with the Constitution of 1875, which required the renewal of the mandate at the beginning of each year's session—hence the reason for the decree. On August 28 a second decree abolished the electoral system of the *Conseils Généraux* (departmental councils). By this decree the Government was granted powers to nominate its own members, to be selected from "partisans of the new order who have direct knowledge of the needs of the population among whom they live."

French Parliament Abolished

Although the activities of the French Parliament in the intervening year since its removal to Chatel-Guyon had been negligible, the passing of these decrees brought a strong protest, in the form of a joint letter, from MM. Herriot and Jeanneney to Marshal Pétain and Laval.

During the second half of 1942 Laval pushed forward with vigorous determination his policy (epitomized in his anti-Doriot statement of June 12: "but the power is the Government, and I am the Government") of concentrating control of the entire executive machinery in his own hands and of wielding still greater power over the destiny of his country. Evidence of this was his assumption of control on July 16 of the new Department of French Labour.

In mid-September a Franco-German conference was held in Paris at which the German authorities demanded:

1. The surrender of foreign mercantile tonnage in French ports, aggregating about 220,000 tons.
2. The opening of a German Consulate-General at Dakar to which members of the German High Command should be attached to supervise the defences of West Africa.
3. The immediate dispatch of 600,000 French workers to Germany.

Concerning the first two, Vichy stated that "a decision has not been reached" and negotiations were continuing, but nevertheless it became known in London early in November that 120,000 tons of Allied merchant ships had been handed over to Germany and Italy.

Reporting his conversations with the German authorities at a meeting of the Vichy Cabinet, Laval demanded and was granted plenary powers to enable him to grapple with the new problems forced on him by his German masters.

On September 26 the intrigues of Benoist-Méchin with Doriot for Laval's overthrow prompted Laval to dismiss Benoist-Méchin from his position as Secretary of State in charge of Franco-German relations, and also to remove him from the presidency of the *Légion Tricolore*. Reducing the number of his Secretaries from three to two (De Brinon and Vice-Admiral Platon) Laval stated: "I shall not tolerate attacks on the authority of the Government. I am fully determined to complete my task; the Government stands firm and there is no reason why it should not remain so."

Moves by Laval

Then, with a suddenness that stunned the Axis Powers and revitalized the enslaved peoples everywhere, came the Anglo-American landings in North Africa on November 8. A joint Anglo-American statement was broadcast to the people of Metropolitan France explaining the reasons behind this act, and leaflets containing the text of a broadcast appeal by President Roosevelt to all patriotic Frenchmen were dropped in France and in North Africa.

The same day President Roosevelt sent a letter to Marshal Pétain through

Mr. Pinkney Tuck, the U.S. Chargé d'Affaires, explaining the reasons for the American action, to which Pétain replied that the pretexts invoked could not be justified. "France and her honour are at stake," he said. "We are attacked. We shall defend ourselves. That is the order I give."

Following a Cabinet meeting the same evening, Vichy announced that the United States, by carrying the war into North Africa, had *de facto* broken off relations with France, and Mr. Tuck was handed his passports. To this President Roosevelt stated in Washington that "no act of Hitler or his puppets can sever relations between the American and French peoples; we have not broken relations with the French—we never will."

Break between Vichy and U.S.A.

This was followed by the official severance of diplomatic relations between the U.S. Government and Vichy. Before the end of the month Canada, Mexico, Brazil, Cuba, Colombia, Venezuela, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Peru, and Ecuador had followed suit.

On November 10 Marshal Pétain broadcast a message to the French people, in which he asked for the "greatest calm," and stated that he had taken over command of the sea, land and air forces in the absence of Admiral Darlan.

The crisis was reached on November 11, the 24th anniversary of the ending of the first World War, when, following an all-night conference of the German High Command with Laval in attendance, the German forces crossed the delimitation line and began the occupation of the unoccupied zone. Asking the French military and police to render the German forces all possible aid, Baron Krug von Nidda, the German Consul-General in Vichy, presented to Marshal Pétain a personal letter from Hitler stating his reasons for this action. At 7 a.m. of the same day Radio-Paris broadcast the text of a message from Hitler to the French people and army. Stating, among other things, that the occupation of the hitherto unoccupied zone was forced on him by the Anglo-Americans, Hitler said the army had no intention of establishing German rule in those territories, and that their presence was only for the purpose of repelling enemy landings. During the morning, Marshal Pétain received Field-Marshal von Rundstedt, C.-in-C. of German forces in France, and protested against Hitler's decision as "incompatible with the armistice agreement."

Then, on November 13, the freedom-loving nations heard with mixed feelings



ITALIAN AND GERMAN TROOPS OCCUPY VICHY FRANCE

On November 11, 1942, three days after the Allied landings in North Africa, German and Italian forces advanced into that part of France which had been left since the armistice under the jurisdiction of the Vichy Government, and proceeded to occupy the whole country. Above, part of an Italian motorised detachment halted on a tree-lined road of southern France on the way to Marseilles. Below, a German tank passing through the streets of Toulouse.





HEADS OF THE COLLABORATIONIST GOVERNMENT AT VICHY

Marshal Pétain, head of the French (Vichy) State, Admiral Darlan, Minister of Defence, and M. Pierre Laval, Premier, watching a military parade in front of the hotel used as the office of the French collaborationist government at Vichy. Behind Laval is General Noguès, French Resident General in Morocco, who later strenuously opposed the Allied landings in North Africa, but placed himself under Admiral Darlan's orders when Darlan ordered the "cease fire" on November 11, 1942. (See page 2541.)

Photo, Associated Press

the news that Admiral Darlan had "joined" the United Nations. In a proclamation from Radio Algiers Darlan stated that, in full freedom and full accord with General Noguès and at his request, he had assumed responsibility for French interests in Africa, and requested that all Frenchmen should continue at their posts.

Darlan's defection from Vichy, coupled with his appointment of General Giraud as French C.-in-C. of North Africa, compelled Marshal Pétain, who felt himself grievously betrayed, to issue a statement on November 16 that Darlan, by his actions in North Africa, had put himself outside the national community, and was, therefore, stripped of all public office and military command.

Darlan Disowned by Pétain

These momentous events in North Africa and in Metropolitan France were followed by the adhesion to General de Gaulle of further territories and further officials in the remnants of empire left to Vichy France; French West Africa, however, joined Admiral Darlan.

As a result of a meeting of the Vichy Cabinet on November 18, and following a statement signed jointly by Marshal Pétain and Laval, and announcing that Laval was to be given powers to deal swiftly and in all places with the difficulties through which the State was passing, a new Constitutional Act (No. 12) was passed. The text of this was as follows:

"We, Marshal of France and Chief of State, by virtue of the constitutional law of July 10, 1940, decree that the head of the Government—outside the constitutional laws—has power on his simple signature alone to make laws and issue decrees."

Relating to the provision of a deputy for and successor to the Chief of State, the text of the Constitutional Act, following a preamble as above, was as follows:

Art. 1. If for any cause whatever before the ratification of the new constitution by the nation we are prevented from exercising the functions of Chief of State, these functions shall be assumed by Pierre Laval, head of the Government. In the case of permanent incapacity the Cabinet shall within a month appoint a Chief of State by a majority vote. At the same time it shall define and fix the respective powers and attributions of the Chief of State and the head of the Government, whose functions shall be separate.

Art. 2. The constitutional Act No. 4 (dated February 2, 1941) appointing Darlan as Pétain's presumptive successor is, and remains, cancelled.

Changes in the Government were also announced, Admiral Abrial replacing Admiral Auphan as Secretary for the Navy, M. Jean Bichelonne replacing M. Gibrat as Secretary for Communications, and M. Pierre Cathala, Secretary for Finance, being appointed to a new post as Minister of National Economy and Finance.

The bitter political opposition to Vichy by Marcel Déat, the pro-German leader of the *Rassemblement National Populaire*, which had continued despite Laval's attempts to suppress it, was further evidenced by a violent attack on Vichy by Déat in a broadcast from Radio-Paris on November 19, in which he asserted that Laval should transfer his Government to Paris because Vichy had become the symbol of all that was rotten.

Defending himself and outlining further his policy of collaboration with Germany, Laval in a broadcast the next day insisted that it was in the interests of France and in the interests of peace that Vichy was attempting reconciliation with Germany.

The formation of a *Phalange Africaine*, a body of so-called volunteers pledged to fight in Africa against the Allies, was announced on November 25 by Benoist-Méchin. On the same day De Brinon announced that the *Phalange Africaine* had as its aims "the representation of France on the battlefields of the Orient," and as its object "the barring of the Anglo-Saxons from the French Empire." Three days later Déat demanded that the *Phalange Africaine*, for which recruiting centres had been opened, should replace the "armistice army," dissolved on Hitler's orders.

'Phalange Africaine' Formed

Meanwhile, anxiety regarding the French fleet had grown considerably. President Roosevelt's proposals of early July, during the crisis in the Libyan situation, that the French warships immobilized at Alexandria should be placed in the protective custody of the United States had been rejected by Vichy. The broadcast announcement by Admiral Darlan from Radio Algiers on November 12, asking the chiefs of the French fleet at Toulon to bring their ships to North Africa or put them beyond the Germans' power, did much, therefore, to clear the air. This was followed by a German High Command announcement that as the French naval chiefs at Toulon had "given a solemn declaration that the French warships will defend themselves against any attack from the Anglo-Saxons, the Fuehrer and the Duce have given orders that the military zone of Toulon is not to be occupied by German and Italian troops."

Nevertheless, the Germans lost little time in preparing to seize the French fleet. The Teuton thoroughness of their plan, by which Toulon was cut

off at the critical hour from all communication with the rest of France, was by the irony of fate the cause of the German failure. When, therefore, Marshal Pétain received, in the early hours of November 27, a message from Von Rundstedt ordering the immediate surrender of the fleet, his order to Admiral de Laborde, the French Naval Commander, to comply with the German demand failed to reach him.

By 10 a.m. some 230,000 tons of naval shipping had been scuttled or destroyed, in accordance with the Admiral's armistice orders. Thus was completed the grimmest as well as the greatest operation of its kind since the scuttling of the German High Seas Fleet at Scapa Flow in 1919. This was indeed a great blow to German hopes, and a sad day for all patriotic Frenchmen as well.

With the announcement by Vichy radio on November 28 that the demobilization of virtually all the French forces remaining under the terms of the Armistice was continuing and that German troops had taken over all important military points in the former unoccupied zone, Marshal Pétain issued an Order of the Day to the French land, naval and air forces:

Axis Troops Occupy all France

"You who have joined the army in a spirit of sacrifice are to-day undergoing a trial which afflicts my soldier's heart. France will always remember your regiments which have been torn asunder and your ships which have disappeared. France will never allow your glorious traditions to vanish. Officers, soldiers and sailors—stand beside the man who loves you for what you are. When you salute your flag I request you to keep firm in your hearts the words—Honour and Homeland. France will not die."

Then came the assassination of Darlan by a young Frenchman at Algiers on December 24, the hasty execution of the assassin on Christmas Day, and the appointment of General Giraud to succeed Darlan as High Commissioner of French North Africa and French West Africa.

During this stormy period of French history, measures designed to restrict the few remaining activities of the Jews were passed in France, together with other measures against saboteurs and "Communists and De Gaullists." Between July 14–16 some 15,000–18,000 Jews of all ages were rounded up in the occupied zone and herded into concentration camps. Scenes of unspeakable brutality were an everyday occurrence in both zones—old people, pregnant and nursing mothers, little children, young girls, were all subjected to humiliating and harrowing treatment. By the end of August it was estimated that no less than 30,000 Jews had suffered.

The deep disgust of the French populace was shown by their attempts to alleviate the sufferings of the Jews, despite threats of imprisonment or worse. Many police and other officials refused to carry out their anti-Semitic orders, preferring the risk of arrest. Anti-German and anti-Vichy demonstrations were a daily occurrence.

An appeal for the Jews by the Papal Nuncio, Mgr. Valerio Valeri, was rejected by Vichy, as was also a joint protest made to Marshal Pétain by all the Cardinals and Archbishops in the occupied zone in September. Vigorous protests by the French National Committee in London (August 7) and the U.S. State Department (September 4) had no effect, Laval declaring on September 13 that no protests would "prevent the liberation of the country from undesirable elements."

At a Press conference on September 16 Mr. Cordell Hull condemned as "revolting and diabolical" the delivery by Vichy of Jews and others into the hands of a people "who had announced, and in a considerable degree executed, their intention to enslave, maltreat and eventually exterminate them under conditions of the most revolting cruelty." A similar protest was made by the Canadian Government on September 27.

In connexion with the numerous acts of sabotage and unrest which played so prominent a part in the daily life of French men and women, it was announced by General Stuelpnagel on September 18 that 116 "Communist terrorists" had been executed for the killing of a number of German soldiers. Bomb explosions, railway accidents, sabotage and destruction of power stations and military installations, as well as food riots, widespread disturbances and demonstrations were of frequent occurrence, and were followed, as usual, by harsh and severe reprisals.

Sabotage and Reprisals

The end of the year, however, saw new hope born in the hearts of all patriotic French people, a point stressed by M. René Massigli, leading French diplomat who escaped from France to join General de Gaulle in January 1943. Reporting on the situation in France at the end of 1942, he said:

"In all these trials French opinion was optimistic. The news from Russia, Libya and North Africa was like a whiff of oxygen. Nobody doubts victory."



WAR LEADERS HONOUR THE FALLEN

Admiral Darlan, Chief of State in French North Africa, Admiral of the Fleet Sir Andrew Cunningham, Naval Commander-in-Chief, Expeditionary Force, North Africa, Lieut.-General Dwight Eisenhower, Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Forces in North Africa, and General Giraud, French Commander-in-Chief, North Africa, gathered to do honour to the fallen at a great parade of troops in Algiers held in December 1942.

Photo, Planet News

OCCUPIED EUROPE: CZECHOSLOVAKIA, POLAND, GREECE AND YUGOSLAVIA

Rounding up of men and women for slavery in Germany, shooting of hostages, pogroms—these were among the 'blessings' conferred on Axis-occupied Europe by the Nazi New Order. Here is continued the record of conditions in the occupied countries lying between Baltic and Mediterranean up to the close of 1942: earlier phases were covered in Chapters 137, 139 and 186

When the year 1941 opened, 21 months had passed since the senile and spiritless Czech President, Dr. Emil Hacha, had handed over the fortunes of his people to the care of Adolf Hitler, who on March 15, 1939, publicly promised, in gracious return, "to guarantee the Czech people an autonomous development of its national life."

The worthlessness of this typical undertaking was dramatically illustrated on the first day of the year: on January 1, 1941, the Czech crown disappeared as national currency, to be replaced by the German mark under the terms of the Customs and Monetary Union between the Reich and the Protectorate of Bohemia-Moravia, thus destroying the last nominal vestige even of economic autonomy in the former republic of Czechoslovakia.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

A year later, on January 19, 1942, the Government of the Protectorate was reorganized in a fashion which abolished the few remaining traces of Czech political autonomy. The offices of Prime Minister, Public Works, Social Welfare and Health were abolished; Dr. Krejci, former Minister of Justice, was appointed to the new position of "Chairman of the Cabinet" and Minister of Justice and Education; Dr. Walter Bertsch, a German economics expert, became Minister of Labour and Economics, virtual dictator of Czech economy, and Col. Moravec, a Czech collaborationist, Minister of Popular Culture. German nominees were similarly appointed to the Ministries of Communications and Finance, and to the new Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, which replaced the former Ministries of Industry, Commerce and Trade—a significant transformation.

The framework of the "New Order" in the Protectorate was thus completed. Masters of the sadistic art of rubbing salt into the wound—witness the humiliation of the French at Compiègne in 1940—the Germans picturesquely symbolized the thraldom of Czechoslovakia on November 19, 1941, when Hacha surrendered to Heydrich the venerated seven keys of the Crown jewels of the old kingdom of Bohemia, three being returned by Heydrich as token of "loyalty" and four retained by him as "trustee" for Hitler and the Reich.



LIDICE'S NAME LIVES ON

On July 12, 1942, the town of Stern Park Gardens, near Joliet (Illinois) was formally renamed Lidice at a ceremony attended by Vice-President Wallace and Mr. Wendell Wilkie, to honour and commemorate the name of the Czech mining village of Lidice, destroyed a month earlier by the Nazis (see page 2569). *Photo, Paul Popper*

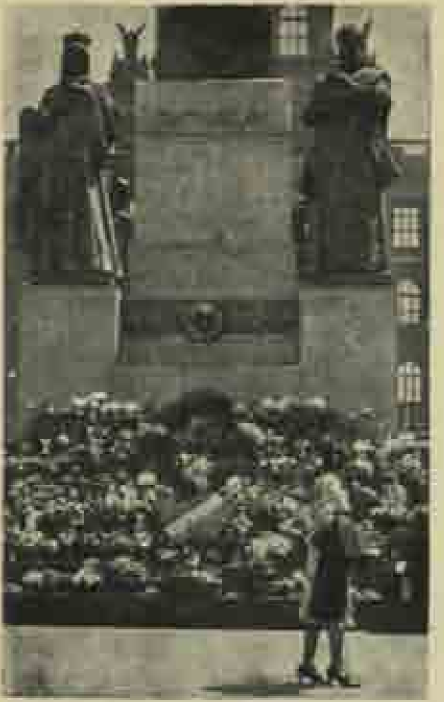


UNDERGROUND PAPER FROM OCCUPIED EUROPE

Here is the heading of a stencilled sheet produced in Czechoslovakia. It is typical of the hundreds of underground papers secretly printed and circulated in occupied Europe. Its title 'Boj' means struggle. The headings mean 'No betrayal!' and 'Death to Traitors!' The founder of 'Boj,' Joseph Skalda, was caught and shot by the Germans.

Reinhard Heydrich, Himmler's second-in-command of the Gestapo, had replaced Baron von Neurath as Reichs-Protector of Bohemia and Moravia on September 28, 1941. He put his experience of the use of terrorism in Norway and the Netherlands into effect immediately, and until his death on June 2, 1942, as the result of shots fired at him by two patriots, Jan Kubis, a Czech, and Josef Gabcitz, a Slovak, on May 26, his regime was a melancholy cycle of repression, revolt, and punitive measures.

Up to November 1941 the Inter-Allied Information Committee in London calculated that Heydrich's summary courts had sentenced 352 Czech



TRIBUTES TO A BOHEMIAN SAINT

As a silent protest against Nazi oppression, the Czechs constantly placed fresh flowers on the monuments to the great men of their past. Here is the flower-decked memorial at Prague to St. Wenceslaus (or Vaclav), the 'Good King Wenceslaus' of the carol. A convert to Christianity, this early Bohemian ruler was renowned for his piety. He was assassinated by his brother on his way to mass in 935, and was later canonized. The anniversary of his death, September 28, is a great festival day in Czechoslovakia.

citizens to death and had handed over another 1,070 to the Gestapo. A five weeks' state of emergency followed the killing of Heydrich. It was marked by mass executions and arrests. In all, according to the Berlin correspondent of the "Svenska Dagbladet," there were 1,293 executions up to July 3.

This figure, which probably does not err on the side of exaggeration, did not include the victims of two destroyed villages. On June 10, 1942, Prague radio announced that the whole population of Lidice (20 miles west of Prague) some 1,500 to 2,000 in number, had been dispersed, the village razed to the ground, and its name removed from official records. All the men, about 500 in number, mostly miners in the Kladno coalfield and steel-workers, were shot, their women were taken to concentration camps, and their children to Nazi "educational centres." The reason given was that Lidice had harboured the killers of Heydrich.

On June 25 it was announced that the village of Lezaky, in the Chrudim industrial district some sixty miles east of Prague, had suffered a similar fate because, it was said, it had sheltered parachutists who had plotted the attack on Heydrich. The victims numbered about 160.

Unable to break the stubborn resistance of the Czech people, Heydrich's successor, Group-Leader Daluege, formerly chief of the German police, launched a further terrorist drive towards the end of 1942. Among the dead were Jan Sykora, President Masaryk's aide-de-camp in the Czech fight for freedom in the First World War, and Jiri Sedmik, formerly private secretary to President Benes. The Germans officially admitted 1,940 executions during 1942; but this figure also did not include the Lidice and Lezaky massacres, nor deaths of Jews and in concentration camps.

Jewish persecution was unremitting. On October 6, 1941, all synagogues were closed as "centres of mouth to mouth propaganda," and it was made a severely punishable offence for non-Jews to associate with Jews. All Jews in the Protectorate—estimated in 1938 at some 125,000—were in Feb. 1942 ordered to reside in Theresienstadt, a town of 7,000 inhabitants, who were moved elsewhere.

On April 12, 1941, the Germans seized all the premises of the nation-wide Sokol voluntary gymnastic organization, confiscating its documents and funds and arresting some of its leaders.





HEYDRICH THE KILLER ALIVE AND DEAD

Reinhard Heydrich, born in 1906, died June 3, 1942, was compelled to resign from the German Navy in 1931 owing to the immorality of his private life. He joined the Nazi Party next year, becoming almost at once adjutant to Himmler. He helped in the 'liquidation' of Roehm and his group in 1934. Entrusted with breaking resistance in the occupied countries, he earned the title 'killer' by his barbarities. (Top) In Paris, between Major-General Oberg and Dr. Knochen, shortly before his death in Prague, where he lay in state on June 6. (Bottom) Hitler saluting his bier at a second lying-in-state in Berlin on June 9, attended also by Goering and by Himmler, who described Heydrich as "a man of purest character, a noble, honest, and decent human being; for all Germans he will live as a martyr." (See also pages 2368–69.)

Photos, Associated Press; Keystone



NAZI WAR ON THE JEWS IN POLAND

Passageways for 'Aryans' were shut off down the centre of certain streets in the ghetto of Warsaw. Jews could cross these streets only by using a bridge like the one shown. (Below) Photograph taken from the body of a German officer killed on the Russian front showing a Gestapo raid on the Warsaw ghetto: inhabitants lined up, hands above their heads, while Gestapo agents search them. Poles escaping from German-occupied Poland reported that anti-semitism was at an end there—Nazi persecution of the Poles had brought them to sympathize with their even worse persecuted Jewish fellow-citizens.

Photos, Keystone



POLAND

The agony of Poland reached new depths in the period under survey. The homicidal policy of the Nazis found expression in the Ostdeutscher Beobachter, of Poznan: "We Germans do not admit the right of the Poles to life in any form" (May 1941). In July, Greiser, Gauleiter of Warthegau, echoed this: "God has helped us to conquer the Polish nation, which must now be destroyed; no Pole must have the right in future to own any land or house in Poland."

The atrocities that were committed in pursuance of this set policy of extermination both of the Polish people and of Polish culture constitute a recital too long to be fully documented here. A "White Paper" handed to the U.S. State Department by the Polish Ambassador in June 1941 summarized the position in Poland thus: "There is not a single principle of the right of human beings, not a single clause of positive international law, which has not been ground underfoot by the occupying forces."

In November 1941 the Inter-Allied Information Committee estimated that some 82,000 people had been executed during the two years of occupation, not including 30,000 who died in concentration camps. A flagrant case of the Nazis' common practice of killing hostages occurred in May 1941. The Polish film star Igo Sym was shot dead in Warsaw by patriots for serving the Gestapo. Thirty hostages among the best-known Polish actors and other members of the artistic community were arrested and would, announced the Gestapo, be shot after three days if the assassins were not handed over. No one betrayed them, and the sentence was carried out.

The story of the German attempt at the "biological destruction" of the Polish nation was told in a Polish White Book published in the United States in August 1941 and in Britain in January 1942: The German New Order in Poland. It told a documented story of every conceivable kind of brutality, massacre and humiliation, of mass murders and imprisonments, starvation, the destruction of cultural life by the closing of universities and schools, the deliberate debasement of the Polish people to the level of slaves, and mass deportations (estimated at 1,500,000 before the end of 1942).

The climax of horror was reached in the summer of 1942. On October 17, 1940, the Jews of Warsaw, some half-million in number, had been given a week (extended to a month) to move into the ghetto area set apart for them, taking only their personal effects, their other property being confiscated; non-Jews living inside the ghetto area, which was surrounded by a wall in the medieval manner, were ordered to leave it. Entrance and exit were permitted only by the use of a pass, anyone who

SECRET POLISH PAPERS

Below are the headings of a number of sheets printed and circulated secretly in Poland. 'To-morrow,' 'The Signal,' 'Pinpricks,' 'Polish Daily,' 'Army and Independence', 'The Struggle', 'The Polish Soldier', 'The Voice of Poland' are among their names. Reproduced in one issue of 'Army and Independence' shown is a photograph of Mr. Churchill on a visit to the Polish army in Scotland.





VICE-ADMIRAL LORD LOUIS MOUNTBATTEN, G.C.V.O., D.S.O., C.C.O., WITH HIS STAFF AT COMBINED OPERATIONS HEADQUARTERS

ON April 13, 1942, Mr. Churchill announced in the House of Commons that Captain Lord Louis Mountbatten had succeeded Admiral Sir Roger Keyes as Adviser on Combined Operations on October 19, 1941, and had been appointed Chief of Combined Operations (C.C.O.) on March 18, 1942, with the rank of Vice-Admiral and the honorary rank of Lieutenant-General and Air Marshal. He is seen here at his desk at Combined Operations Headquarters with Major-General J. C. Haydon, D.S.O., O.B.E., and Air Vice-Marshal James Milne Robb, C.B., D.S.O., D.F.C.

Early in the Second Great War, Lord Louis was a captain in command of a destroyer flotilla. He was in the thick of the naval fighting off both Norway and Crete. One destroyer he served in was mined, a second—H.M.S. 'Kelly'—was torpedoed (see illus., p. 1084), but he brought them both back to port. A third was sunk off Crete by dive-bombers, Lord Louis being picked up by another warship. During part of 1941 he commanded H.M.S. 'Illustrious' (see illus., p. 1601).

In his position as head of Combined Operations, he directed a number of daring raids on the coasts of Norway and France (see Chapter 226). In June 1942 he visited Washington for consultations with American Service Chiefs. The big raid on Dieppe of August 19, 1942 (see Chapter 243)—the first object of which was 'the testing on a larger scale than hitherto of what is known to be a heavily defended section of the coast'—was followed by the successful Allied landings in French North Africa. Lord Louis was appointed Supreme Allied Commander of the newly created South-East Asia Command in August 1943.

Direct colour photograph by Fox Photos



'CHURCHILLS' ON MANOEUVRES IN BRITAIN

Churchill tanks were first publicly mentioned in July 1941, when the Ministry of Supply announced that they were being mass-produced in British factories, and were 'probably the most formidable fighting instrument possessed by any army in the world' (see illus., p. 2025). But in its first form the Churchill proved a disappointment—the 2-pounder gun with which it was equipped was altogether inadequate for a tank of its size and weight. An improved model did useful service in the raid on Dieppe, where it was used by the 14th Canadian Army Tank battalion (see Chapter 243, and illus., p. 2410). Still another type went into action for the first time with good effect in Libya in January 1943 (see illus., p. 2549), and later played an important role in the fighting in Tunisia: it weighed 37 tons, was mounted with a 6-pounder gun, could move at 10 m.p.h. over any kind of ground, and was notably manoeuvrable. Alan Moorehead, the war correspondent, describing from the scene of battle the capture of Longstop Ridge on April 26, 1943, said, 'Those incredible Churchills! One of them mounted to the ultimate crest of Longstop, a place where you would think hardly a fly could climb. They outclimb any German tank.'

Direct colour photograph by Sport & General

ROYAL MARINES TRAIN FOR INVASION

Somewhere on the south coast of England, these Royal Marines practise for landing operations on enemy-held territory. The course they went through was tough, and included exercises in boats and landing-craft, the climbing of rocks and cliffs under fire, and the crossing of streams on ropes. Right, Royal Marines in a dummy landing-craft waiting for the order to go 'ashore.' Below, scaling the cliffs after 'landing' while under fire from live ammunition and exploding ground charges.

Direct colour photographs by Fox Photos







'NO GREAT DEED IS DONE BY FALTERERS WHO ASK FOR CERTAINTY'

These are the badges of twenty-five ships of the Royal Navy—battleships, cruisers, destroyers, and submarines—which were among those lost on war service in the seven seas during the year 1942. Emblems of vessels lost in earlier stages of the war were similarly recorded in the plate facing page 1811.

From material supplied by H.M. Dockyard, Chatham. By permission of H.M. Stationery Office



OFF TO FORCED LABOUR IN GERMANY

Polish men and women awaiting transport to Germany for forced labour. As the call of the armed forces on the manhood of Germany steadily increased, more and stronger efforts were made by the German authorities to drive workers of the occupied areas into war factories in the Reich. German official returns showed more than two million foreign workers in the country at the end of 1941, exclusive of prisoners of war—the largest group being 744,831 men and 202,730 women from Poland. *Photo, Associated Press*

left without a pass rendering himself liable to the death penalty.

Life in the Warsaw ghetto in the winter of 1940–41 and 1941–42 defies description. The food allowance to each person consisted of little beyond about *one* pound of bread weekly; in the second winter the death-rate, calculated on an annual basis, had risen to 13 per cent (the figure for Warsaw in 1938 was 1.07 per cent.).

In March 1942 Himmler, chief of the Gestapo, visited the Government General—the Polish reservation—and is credibly reported to have ordered the extermination of 50 per cent of all the Polish Jews by the end of the year.

Destruction of Polish Jews

Little, relatively, by Nazi standards, was done until he paid a further visit in July. Beginning on July 22, 1942, the ghetto population was rounded up indiscriminately and deported at the rate of 10,000 on the first day, 7,000 on subsequent days. The chairman of the Jewish council of the ghetto, M. Czerniakow, committed suicide when presented with the Nazis' demands. The wretched people were packed into cattle-trucks—120 to each truck capable of holding 40 in minimum comfort. They were mainly dispatched to three localities—Tremblinka, Belsec and Sobibor, "extermination camps" according to a report handed to all the Allied Governments on December 9, 1942. Of the 250,000 Jews deported from Warsaw up to September 1, 1942, only two groups, numbering in all some 4,000 people, had been traced as living at the end of 1942.

On December 17, 1942, Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary, told a hushed House of Commons that "reliable reports have recently reached H.M. Government regarding the barbarous and inhuman treatment to which the Jews are being subjected in German-occupied Europe." He cited the report mentioned above. The whole House later stood in silence as a tribute to the martyred Jews of Europe. British Jewry and Jewish refugees in Britain observed December 13 as a day of prayer and mourning for their persecuted fellows.

The partnership between Germany and Italy was nowhere more uneasy than in Greece: one political consequence was that each had its own "quisling." As a rival to General Tsolakoglu, put in power by the Germans on April 30, 1941, the Italians backed M. Kotzamanis, a politician from Salonika, who became Tsolakoglu's finance Minister.

Tsolakoglu's position was never secure. In vain he tried to achieve the pacification of Greece in face of its plundering by the conquerors and of steadily deteriorating economic conditions. There were rumours consistently circulating of moves to replace him, and at last he resigned in November 1942 ostensibly on grounds of ill-health. Kotzamanis, however, did not succeed him; though backed by the Italians, he was not acceptable to the Germans.

GREECE

Instead, M. Logothetopoulos, a wholehearted admirer of Germany, was appointed Premier. The real power, however, lay with Neybacher, a former Mayor of Vienna, who at the end of November was sent to Athens by Berlin to take complete control of economic affairs.

They were in a lamentable state. The country that had enjoyed the highest standard of living of all the Balkan states saw its precarious prosperity crumble under Axis occupation. As it had no heavy industry to serve the enemy's war needs, there was no inducement for the Axis to ensure supplies of food for (to them) useless mouths; on the other hand, by July 1942 some 40,000 labour conscripts had been sent to work in other occupied countries and in Germany.

Security considerations crippled the country's valuable fishing and mercantile industries; the countryside



BRITONS WERE STILL FIGHTING IN CRETE IN 1942

Although the Royal Navy evacuated 17,000 men from Crete during June 1, 1941, a number had to be left behind (see Chapter 173). Some of them eluded capture and, helped by native patriots, carried on guerilla operations from places difficult of access in the mountains. Nearly a year later, the Germans published this photograph of two British soldiers just captured, together with some Cretan patriots, by German Alpine troops.

Photo, Keystone

was ravaged by warfare between occupation troops and guerillas and deliberate reprisal destruction; transport, other than military, was at a standstill through fuel shortage; prices of all goods soared, and though wages, too, rose, they lagged behind prices.

The general distress was magnified by the wholesale purchase of goods for sending home, and large-scale looting, by the occupying troops; and by the influx of hordes of refugees from the Greek areas ceded to Albania and Bulgaria. Deaths from starvation were officially estimated to be 100,000 by the end of 1942.

By the summer of 1942 the Allies had begun to give effective aid to the resistance movement, contact having been made with many of the guerilla bands by British officers secretly landed. Chief of the partisan units were the National Popular Liberation Army (E.L.A.S.), some 30,000 men, controlled by the National Liberation Movement (E.A.M.). Communist in inspiration; the National Democratic Greek Army under the command of General Zervas, claiming to be Republican; and the E.K.K.A., a non-political band, supported by officers, led by Col. Psaros.

During most of 1942 the various resistance groups co-operated so well that the enemy was driven out of the country districts and strong opposition centres were established in Western Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus. The Athens–Salonika railway was cut so often as to be rendered strategically useless: the Axis movement of men and supplies was thus seriously handicapped during the North African campaign—no mean contribution by Greece to the cause of the Allied Nations.

YUGOSLAVIA

Yugoslavia in 1942 presented a tragic picture of a group of peoples who in two decades had made some progress towards forming a nation and who were now not only subjugated by a common enemy but were warring bitterly once more among themselves. The year was primarily significant for the clarification of the conflict between the two guerilla movements: the Chetniks of Mihailovitch and the Partisans of "Tito"—a *nom de guerre* which cloaked the personalities of several leaders, but which was in 1943 finally attributed to one Josip Broz, a 53-year-old Croat from near Zagreb.

Underlying the feud was the traditional antagonism between Serbs and Croats—Mihailovitch may be called an impassioned Serb; but with Germany's attack on Russia a new political element was added: Mihailovitch was regarded as representing the *ancien régime* by the Tito Partisans, who not only drew inspiration and material aid from Russia but had their communiqués incorporated in those of the Red Army.

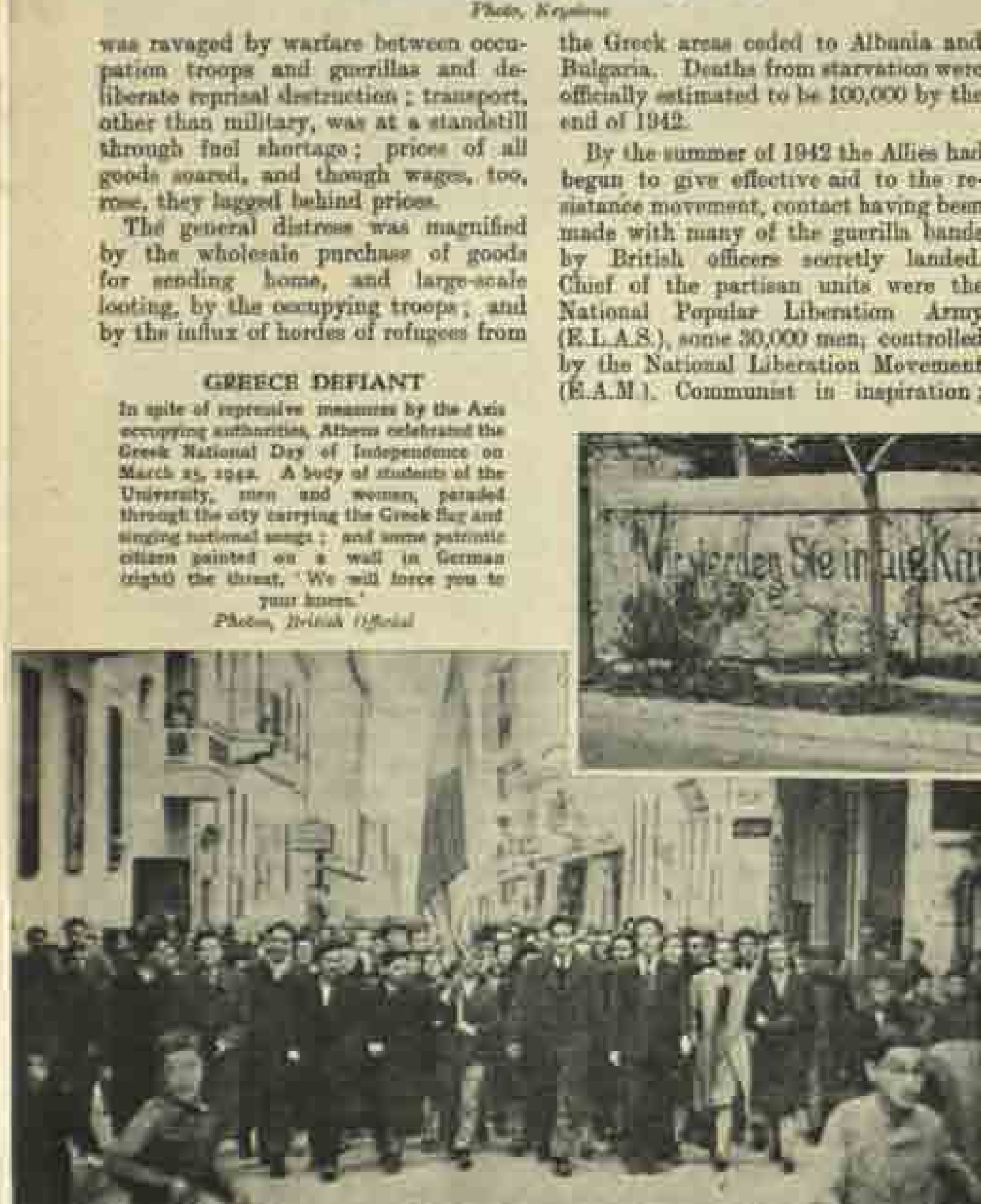
In the summer of 1941 Mihailovitch accused the Partisans of attacking the Chetniks, and repeatedly urged the Yugoslav Government in London to intervene with the Soviet Government to end these attacks. After more fighting, the Soviet Government in August

GREECE DEFIANT

In spite of repressive measures by the Axis occupying authorities, Athens celebrated the Greek National Day of Independence on March 25, 1942. A body of students of the University, men and women, paraded through the city carrying the Greek flag and singing national songs; and some patriotic citizens painted on a wall in German (right) the threat, 'We will force you to your knees.'

Photos, British Official





1942 charged the Chetniks with attacking the Partisans. Evil blood continued, but not until just after the period under review—in the spring of 1943—did the Chetnik-Partisan conflict reach its bloodiest height, when the Partisans, driven south-eastwards by the Germans, reached territory occupied by Mihailovitch's forces.

Mihailovitch, with remnants of the old Yugoslav Army, was the first to offer resistance to the invader, withstanding two mighty German drives before the Partisans started operating; but by April 1942 resistance in Serbia and Eastern Bosnia had been suppressed. From that time, most of the fighting was carried on by the Partisans, Montenegro becoming the main area of activity, which, however, during the early summer shifted to north-west Bosnia, where Prijedor was captured by the Partisans in May. South-west Bosnia and Srem, south-west of Novi-Sad, were areas of battle in July. In August the Italians were reported to have eastern Herzegovina under control, while guerilla activity continued in Slovenia. About this time fighting was also reported from north and west Croatia, north-east Bosnia, south-west of Sarajevo, and on the River Drina. In December Partisans organized in divisions were active in the area round Prijedor, Bihac, and Jajce, south of Banjaluka, in north-west Bosnia.



GERMAN PRISONERS OF WAR IN YUGOSLAVIA

Fighting on a considerable scale still went on in Yugoslavia long after the Germans and Italians over-ran the country in 1941. The Chetniks under General Mihailovitch, and later the Partisans under General "Tito," kept in the field a real army of resisters who destroyed communications, blew up factories, and constantly attacked the Axis occupying forces. A line of German prisoners taken in fighting in the mountainous region of western Serbia is here being marched away to internment under a guard of Chetniks.

Photo, Associated Press

Politically the most interesting developments were in "independent" Croatia (see map, p. 1876), largest of the sections of Axis-divided Yugoslavia.

Quisling Government in Croatia

The appointment of the Italian-supported Croat terrorist, Pavelich, as leader of the Government; and the proclamation on May 18, 1941, of the Duke of Spoleto (brother of the Duke of Aosta) as king, implied that Croatia was at least in theory within the Italian orbit.

However, Croatia occupied a nut-in-a-cracker position between the two German-controlled areas: north Slovenia, and Serbia plus the Banat, and throughout the year Italian influence was being successfully undermined by the Germans. German moves which illustrated this trend were a purge of leaders of the state party, the Ustacha (fostered by Italy and Hungary) under the orders of the German military chief in Zagreb, General Glaise-Horstenau; the establishment of a German military H.Q., only nominally under the control of Marshal Kvaternik, Croat Minister of Defence; and the appointment of German instructors in the Croat civil and railway police forces. It was not until a period later than that covered by this Chapter that these trends blossomed into *de facto* German control.

The food situation became so critical, largely owing to the breakdown of communications through guerilla activities, that it was even suggested in the summer of 1942 that extra food should be supplied to Government workers rather than wage-increases of no practical value. By the end of the year Germany had to divert emergency supplies to Croatia, admitting thus that the state had become a liability.

German policy in Serbia and the adjacent Banat, characterized by the familiar oppression and exploitation, was hampered by the country's parlous economic situation. Shortage of coal stopped the factories in January. Food production lagged behind needs. Despite the announcement of a programme of intensified agricultural effort, with compulsory labour, in February, and a further drive in the autumn, grain had to be sent to Serbia from the fertile Banat in the spring of 1943. Order was maintained only by extreme repression: the Yugoslav Government in London announced that in 1942 in Belgrade alone 27,000 people were shot. For every German killed, 100 Serbs were executed; for every German wounded, 50 Serbs paid a similar penalty.

The year in Italian-controlled Montenegro was marked by relentless conflict with the guerillas and the continued draining of the resources of what had always been a poor and unproductive part of Yugoslavia. Italian-controlled Slovenia, too, was the scene of so much subversive activity that the hostage system was introduced in April. Later compulsory labour was enforced and some 130,000 of the population sent to Italy. Italian-controlled Dalmatia, under its Governor, Bastianini, was by 1942 completely Italianized.

The Bulgarian pogrom of the Serbs of Macedonia continued: out of 25,000 Serbs formerly in Skoplje, for example, only some 1,000–2,000 remained by February 1942. Hungarian rule in the Backa and Baranja area, west of the Banat, tended to be moderate after the initial repression following the invasion, but in January there was a massacre of Serbs in consequence of a nationalist rising in Zabalj.

In 1942, in short, the obliteration by Axis forces of the Serb-Croat-Slovene experiment in mutual tolerance and unity of nationhood continued.









POLISH AIRMEN IN BRITAIN

After the conquest of Poland, a Polish Air Force was formed in France, and following the defeat of France it was reformed in Britain, where Polish pilots fought in the Battle of Britain, winning high honours (see illus., p. 1269). By the end of 1942 Polish airmen operating from Britain had destroyed 500 enemy aircraft; in some 3,000 raids had dropped more than 9,000 tons of bombs, and had manned 100 aircraft in two 1,000-bomber raids. 1. Polish flying officers in R.A.F. Lysanders on photographic reconnaissance over Scotland. 2. Polish air crew entering a Wellington; note the red and white chequered national marking. (See also plate facing p. 1734.) 3. 'Warsaw's Gift to Berlin'; ground staff inscribe a bomb going to Germany. 4. Polish pilots with Fighter Command receive final instructions.

Photos, British Official: Polish Govt.

FREE POLAND, CZECHOSLOVAKIA GREECE AND YUGOSLAVIA

Practical contributions of considerable value to the Allied cause were made by the exiled Governments of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Greece, and Yugoslavia—among them in particular hundreds of thousands of fighting men of fine calibre and determined purpose. These Governments also established useful contacts among themselves which gave promise of friendlier relations between their countries after the war. Earlier developments in the history of the Czech and Polish Governments were covered in Chapter 121

Though, naturally, the main preoccupation of the London Governments of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Greece and Yugoslavia was the plight of their Axis-occupied countries (see Chapter 259), they had two other major problems to demand their attention. The first was the solid establishment of their credentials with the other Allied Governments. The second was the amicable discovery of a realistic *modus vivendi*, economic, political and military, for the post-war years. This is illustrated by the series of important pacts that were concluded between them and the greater Allies, and by a succession of Cabinet changes and international conferences which marked the development of agreement.



CZECH A.A. GUN CREW

Czechoslovak refugees stranded at Beirut in 1940 passed into Palestine, where they were formed into an infantry battalion which saw service in Syria, and later in the Western Desert, where they helped to man the anti-aircraft defences during the long siege of Tobruk in 1941.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

On March 21, 1941, a Polish-Czechoslovak Co-ordinating Committee was set up in London in conformity with the agreement reached between the two Governments in London during November 1940 to co-operate in the post-war reconstruction of Eastern and Central Europe. Poland's view on this issue was stated by her Premier and C.-in-C., General Sikorski, in New York in May, when he advocated a post-war confederation of Slavonic states extending from the Baltic to the Black Sea.

A great step forward to the realization of such a plan was the signing on July 30 of a Russo-Polish Agreement which recognized that the Soviet-German treaties of 1939 as to territorial changes in Poland had lost their validity, provided for the immediate resumption of Russo-Polish diplomatic relations, and arranged for the formation on Russian territory of a Polish army under a Polish commander. Under a protocol to this agreement, the Soviet Government granted an amnesty to all Polish citizens detained in the U.S.S.R., either as prisoners of war or on other grounds.

Mr. Churchill declared that this pact, negotiated by M. Maisky and General Sikorski, marked "the association of two historic nations of Eastern Europe in the defence of human rights." A fortnight later, the release of all Polish nationals and the formation of a Polish army—originally to be two divisions, later expanded to six divisions—were announced in Moscow. Prof. Stanislaw Kot, Minister for Home Affairs under Sikorski, arrived in Moscow as Polish Ambassador on September 4. One of the most difficult of inter-Allied problems — Russo-Polish accord — seemed healthily on the way to solution.

POLAND



TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN RUSSIA AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Germany's attack on Russia in June 1941 was followed by the signing in London on July 18 of an agreement between the U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovakia arranging for the exchange of Ministers, mutual aid in the war against Germany, and the formation of Czech military units on Russian soil. Here is M. Ivan Maisky, Soviet Ambassador to the Court of St. James's, signing the document, watched by Dr. Jan Masaryk, Czechoslovak Foreign Minister, who signed on behalf of his government.

Photo, P.N.A.



POLISH FORCES IN SOVIET RUSSIA

Under a military agreement signed between Poland and Russia on August 15, 1941, a Polish army, six divisions strong, was raised in the U.S.S.R. under the command of Lieut.-General Wladyslaw Anders. Britain and the United States provided its equipment. Left, men of the Tadeusz Kosciuszko Polish Division repeating after their commander, Brig.-General Zygmunt Berling (below), an oath to 'fight Fascism to the last drop of their blood.' Members of the Polish Women's Battalion (bottom left) listen to instructions as to their duties.

Photos, Pictorial Press





But there were Polish dissentients. Three members of the Cabinet resigned following the agreement. Count Edward Raczynski, Polish Ambassador to the Court of St. James's, became Acting Foreign Minister, and a little later the Cabinet was completed by the very significant additions of M. Stanislaw Mikolajczyk, chairman of the Polish Peasant Party, as Deputy-Premier and Minister for Home Affairs; Dr. Herman Lieberman, leader of the Polish Socialist Party, as Minister of Justice; and M. Karel Popiel, chairman of the Polish National Labour Party, as Minister without Portfolio.

Early in December Sikorski proceeded to Moscow, where on December 5 he signed the Russo-Polish pact of collaboration declaring that "the two States, at the side of Great Britain and the other Allies, and with the support of the U.S.A., will fight the war until final victory and the destruction of the German invaders," and looking forward to a relationship between them in time of peace "based on friendship and the loyal fulfilment of contractual engagements by both parties." On the last day of the month it was announced that the Soviet Government had made a loan of 100,000,000 roubles to Poland for the relief of Polish citizens on Soviet territory. Back in London, Sikorski revealed that Stalin had given him an assurance, as Britain had already done, that he believed a strong Poland to be an essential part of the new Europe.

Further Cabinet changes which, it was claimed, made the executive once again a Government of National Unity, were announced on January 22, 1942: one notable appointment was that of M. Waclaw Komarnicki, an authority on international law and a member of the National Democratic Party, just returned from Russia, to be Minister of Justice.

Joint Polish-Czech Declaration

The exiled Polish and Czechoslovak Governments had issued on November 11, 1940, a joint declaration affirming the intention of their countries to collaborate closely after the war in foreign, economic, and military affairs, and expressing the hope that other nations in the region would join the confederation on a basis of freedom and equality. In January 1942 this movement towards

POLISH DESTROYERS ON ACTIVE SERVICE

Right, the 'Burza' standing by to take off the crew of the U.S. Coastguard cutter 'Campbell,' disabled in sinking a U-boat. Below, gunners of the 'Piorun,' presented by Britain to replace the 'Grom' lost off Narvik in 1940 (see illus., p. 824). Below right, on board O.R.P. 'Garland'; singled out for attack she maintained persistent and effective A.A. fire on enemy planes during a running five-day action on convoy to Russia in May 1942; a number of her crew were killed or wounded, but she fought through.

Photos, Pictorial Press; "Daily Mirror"; Central Press







federal organization among the smaller states of Europe made further promising advances: on the 15th the exiled Greek and Yugoslav Governments signed a pact, in the presence of Mr. Eden, British Foreign Secretary, containing detailed plans for the post-war federation of their countries after the war; on the 23rd the Polish and Czechoslovak Governments implemented their 1940 declaration by an agreement setting out the basis of their proposed federation, and inviting the entry into it of neighbouring states.

The Czechoslovak and Polish Governments used this occasion to congratulate Greece and Yugoslavia and to declare that only the co-operation of the two proposed federations could ensure security and prosperity in that area of Europe between the Baltic and Aegean seas, thus supporting similar sentiments expressed a few days earlier by King Peter of Yugoslavia.

During March 1942 General Sikorski followed his visit to Russia by a conversation with members of the British Government, including Mr. Churchill himself, and visits to Canada, and to Washington, where he saw Mr. Roosevelt. Following these contacts, Sikorski stated that there had been "perfect harmony on all matters pertaining not only to the war but to Poland itself." He also stressed the importance for his country of good relations with the U.S.S.R.—a subject to which he returned in November after another visit to Mr. Roosevelt, when he declared in Detroit, "Being a realist I am of the opinion that Poland should seek an understanding with her eastern neighbour." He made a special point of expressing Poland's pleasure at the conclusion of the Anglo-Soviet Treaty of May 26, 1942 (see Historic Document CCXLIX, p. 2107). Only by such frail straws was public indication given of the strain latent in Russo-Polish relations.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The drawing together of the Czechoslovak and Soviet Governments was evident from an agreement signed in London on July 18, 1941, providing for the immediate exchange of Ministers, mutual aid in the war against Germany,



STAMPS OF FREE POLAND

Designs for a set of stamps issued in April 1942 by the postal authorities of the Free Polish Government in London for use on Polish sea-going vessels. They represent: Gr. 5, Ruins of the U.S. Embassy in Warsaw; Gr. 10, Ruins of the Ministry of Finance, Warsaw; Gr. 25, Germans wrecking the Mickiewicz Monument in Cracow, 1940; Gr. 55, Castle Square, Warsaw, seen through a ruined building; Gr. 75, a Polish machine-gun nest; Gr. 80, a Polish medium tank; Zł. 1, Polish aircraft; Zł. 1, Gr. 50, the "Orzeł" (see pages 115, 1086 and 1088).

and the raising of Czechoslovak units under their own commanders on Russian soil. The third of these points was re-affirmed under a military agreement signed in Moscow on September 30.

The Czechoslovak Government in London was accorded full recognition by the British Government on July 18; and by the United States on July 31.

Just a year later the text of notes exchanged between Mr. Eden and Dr. Masaryk was published as a British Government White Paper: they agreed that the final post-war settlement of the Czechoslovak frontiers should not be influenced by any changes effected in and since 1938. On August 8 Dr. Benes announced in a broadcast that the Soviet Government had officially recognized Czechoslovakia's pre-Munich frontiers; and the French National Committee issued a declaration in a similar sense on September 29. Munich was dead.

As might have been expected from one of the founders of Czechoslovakia and the pupil of President Masaryk, Dr. Benes on many occasions publicly propounded suggestions for a stable post-war Europe. Notably, speaking at Aberdeen on November 10, 1942, he outlined the most comprehensive plan till then proposed by any statesman. He gave as fundamental European peace principles: (1) Western Europe: a close alliance between Britain, France, Holland, and Belgium; (2) Germany: to be a decentralized confederation excluding Prussia, which might require to be broken up into three or four separate states; a return to the 1938 frontiers with such modifications as general security might demand and with all deductions of territory to be compensated by allocations of Colonial territory; (3) Italy: certainly to be shorn of her ill-gotten gains in the Mediterranean and Africa; (4) Central Europe: the nexus to be a close Czechoslovak-Polish federation, to which Austria, Hungary, and perhaps Rumania would be invited to adhere; Hungary to surrender territories given her by Germany; (5) Balkans: a similar federation of Yugoslavia, Greece, and Albania, and perhaps Rumania; Turkey would be invited and Bulgaria compelled to join; (6) Soviet Union: Russian participation in the reconstruction of Europe was essential, as was Russian collaboration with the proposed new federations; (7) Scandinavia: a federation of the states in accord with both Britain and Russia; (8) South-western Europe: Spain and Portugal to decide their future for themselves. President Benes declared that Czechoslovakia would accept any limitations of her sovereignty that were accepted also by other nations of theirs.

Benes on Post-war Europe

In October 1941 changes were made in the Czechoslovak State Council to afford representation to Sudeten Germans and Communists; and early in the New Year it was enlarged to admit a Czech labour leader, Dr. Vrbensky, and M. Vaclav Pascal. On December 3, 1942, the State Council prolonged Benes's term of office as President in view of the impossibility of holding presidential elections.

In March 1942 the Government issued a decree to prevent transfers of Czechoslovak property to Germans and their subsequent sale in other countries (e.g. Sweden and Switzerland); on June 17 they announced that arrangements were well in hand for the trial and punishment of war criminals; on June 29, following the assassination of Heydrich (see Chapter 259), Dr. Ripka, Czechoslovak Minister of State in London, warned all "that whoever defiles himself by collaboration with the murderous enemy will not escape punishment"; and on July 14 President Benes conferred the Czech War Cross on martyred Lidice.

GREECE

Mr. Eden, on behalf of Great Britain, and M. Tsouderos, on behalf of the Hellenic Government, signed an agreement on March 9, 1942, affirming the intention of their Governments to collaborate for victory and for the liberation of Greece; agreeing on the principles which should govern the organization and use of the Greek armed forces; and providing for the supply of necessary







WITH THE CZECH TROOPS IN RUSSIA

Patriotic Czechs began to escape from their country after Munich. Many fought with the Poles when Poland was invaded, and of these hundreds escaped into Russia and joined compatriots already there. Following the agreement made in London in July 1941, a Czech brigade was formed in Russia. Clothed and equipped by Britain, it fought under its own leaders collaborating with the Russian High Command. 1. Colonel Ludovik Svoboda, commander of the Czechoslovak Brigade in Russia. 2. Czech tommy-gunners pursuing the enemy during the liberation of a Russian village. 3. Captain Bogumil, second-in-command, receives reports in the field. 4. The standard of the Brigade.

Photos, Pictorial Press





KING AND PRESIDENT RELAX

Eighteen-year-old King Peter of Yugoslavia and President Roosevelt in happy mood during the ceremonies held to welcome the young king when he visited the White House at Washington in June 1942. While there he addressed a joint meeting of the Senate and the House of Representatives, and afterwards went on to Canada.

Photo, Sport & General

equipment by Britain on a lease-lend basis.

May 1942 saw the elevation of the British Ministers to the Hellenic, Yugoslav, and Czechoslovak Governments to Ambassadorial status—a status also accorded to their representatives at the Court of St. James's.

In June King George of the Hellenes, accompanied by his Prime Minister, M. Tsouderos, arrived in Washington on a state visit, staying as the guest of President Roosevelt. He addressed a joint session of Congress—the first monarch to do so since King Albert of the Belgians addressed Senate and Representatives in 1919. He also spoke to the Greek War Relief Society in New York of the misery of Greece. On October 20 Mr. Drexel Biddle presented letters of credence to King George in London as first U.S. Ambassador to Greece, while simultaneously the Hellenic Minister in Washington assumed Ambassadorial rank.

Throughout the year the Hellenic Government was preoccupied with the plight of the starving Greek people. An early disaster was the loss of the Turkish relief ship "Kurtulush," chartered in October 1941 to make 10 fortnightly voyages carrying a total of 50,000 tons of vital foodstuffs: she foundered in the Sea of Marmora on January 20, 1942, becoming a total loss. The Turkish steamship "Dumlupinar" was chartered to replace her. It was officially estimated that food sent by Turkey fed 500,000 people daily. In this work of bringing relief to Greece the Greek Government enjoyed the collaboration of the British, U.S., Turkish, Argentine and Swiss Governments, and the International Red Cross.

In a re-shuffle of the Yugoslav Cabinet in London, announced on January 12, General Draja Mihailovitch, leader of the Chetnik guerilla bands in Yugoslavia (see Chapter 259), was appointed Minister of War.

YUGOSLAVIA

In June King Peter, accompanied by his Premier and Foreign Minister, Dr. Nintchitch, followed King George of the Hellenes as a guest of President Roosevelt at the White House. He also addressed a joint session of Congress, pledging his country to adherence to the principles of the Atlantic Charter and the Four Freedoms. He went on to visit Canada, where in an interview with Canadian Members of Parliament he stated that 100,000 patriot troops were fighting in Yugoslavia, that he was in regular communication with General Mihailovitch, that a Yugoslav submarine and two patrol vessels were operating in the Mediterranean, and that a small Yugoslav air force was stationed in Africa. On September 2 his Government announced that by agreement with the U.S. and Soviet Governments the Yugoslav Legations in Washington and Moscow would be raised to Ambassadorial status, and that the U.S. and Soviet envoys to the Yugoslav Government would assume Ambassadorial rank.





GREEK FORCES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

A fighter pilot of the Royal Hellenic Air Force stationed in the Middle East. Left, a detachment of Greek troops in the Western Desert, passing a bullet-torn Greek flag, relic of the stubborn fighting in Greece itself. A Greek army, made up of men who escaped from Axis-occupied Greece, and of Greeks resident in the Middle East, underwent training in the use of the latest weapons in Palestine, and afterwards did arduous and valuable service in the Western Desert.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

RECORD AND REVIEW OF MAIN EVENTS JULY TO DECEMBER, 1942

A survey of the first six months of 1942 is given in Chapter 238, of the year 1941 in Chapter 203, and of the year 1940 in Chapter 151. This review covers the second half of 1942, when events begin to move rapidly again—but with the Allies now on the offensive. Dates have been collated with the Chronology published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs

GRIM indeed appeared the war situation of the United Nations as the second half of 1942 opened. The German offensive in Libya, in a few weeks, had reversed the fortunes of war in that vital theatre of operations. Tobruk had fallen, and Mersa Matruh; the Eighth Army stood now along the El Alamein line, facing Rommel's Afrika Korps. The enemy was flushed with victory, all eager for the 60-mile dash to Alexandria. In Russia the German summer offensive was apparently sweeping all before it. The fall of Sevastopol, claimed by the Germans on July 1, was admitted by the Soviet on July 3; in the final four weeks of its magnificent defence Soviet troops had suffered more than 40,000 casualties. The Eighth Army's losses in Libya had amounted to 80,000. But the grim and sombre aspect of the war at this stage somewhat belied the real position, for already the weapons of victory had been forged, and plans had been concerted by the Allies for brilliant and co-ordinated enterprises which were soon to reverse the tide—soon, that is, if one looks back to the long months and years during which the protagonists of democracy had been able to do little more than hold fast.

Nevertheless, the situation held grave perils: in the Caucasus the German advance threatened the Caspian ports and the oilfields; Cairo and Alexandria were in imminent danger. But the crisis passed and the enemy drive was checked. Auchinleck opened a counter-offensive on July 1, and after another 28 days of fierce fighting, the enemy was beaten to a standstill. Long before this, however, Mussolini with a gilded staff all primed for the triumphal entry into Alexandria had thought better of it and had flown back to Rome.

Allied Plan of Recuperation

IN his review of the war given to the House of Commons on November 11, 1942, Mr. Churchill told members of decisions taken in conference with Mr. Roosevelt in June, and of discussions during his first visit to Washington in the previous December. In a much later statement (September 21, 1943) he took up the story again. "In June 1942," he said, "a decision was taken to send an American army and a strong British contingent to occupy French North-west Africa. . . . There followed almost immediately, in fact while I was at Washington . . . the disaster of Tobruk and the retreat with the loss of 80,000 men of our Desert Army of more than 300 miles to the approaches of Cairo and Alexandria. . . . At Moscow Premier Stalin was able to speak to me with confidence of his ability to withstand the German attack, and he told me beforehand of the counter-stroke by which he intended to relieve Stalingrad and, if possible, to destroy the German forces before it. At Cairo, Generals Alexander and Montgomery were placed in command when the very substantial reinforcements which had been sent there from Britain several months before arrived to strengthen the Desert Army. Plans were made to resist Rommel's impending attack, and thereafter to regain the initiative by a major battle." Mr. Churchill had reached Moscow on August 12, 1942, after giving orders for the Desert Army's attack on Rommel's forces. General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander's appointment to the Middle East Command was announced on the 18th.

Eighth Army Drives Westward

THE El Alamein line extended from the sea to the Qattara depression (see map in page 2231), closing a gap 40 miles wide. The Desert Army, depleted by the previous battles, had been first to stem the enemy onrush and then to fill the vacancies in its ranks. At the head of the Eighth Army was now Lieut.-General B. L. Montgomery. Rommel strongly attacked on August 31 and made some penetration near El Himeimat on the British left flank; he could not exploit this local success, however, and withdrew again by September 4 under heavy pressure; successful Allied air attacks contributed largely to this repulse. There followed another "quiet" period, marked by a British raid on the Jalo oasis (September 13) and an infantry advance in the central sector of the Alamein front (30th). Rommel's Heimeimat attack, though ineffective, had delayed certain British plans for a counter-offensive, which finally came to fruition on the night of October 23.

Intense air attack and concentrated artillery preparation had gone on for a fortnight, and the barrage that opened the battle at 9.30 p.m. on October 23 was a fitting climax; along the six-mile front of the northern sector our guns were spaced at an average of 23 yards apart. In pursuance of new tactics learnt by experience the enemy minefields were first cleared, and a breach opened through which our armour could make its way into open terrain; apart from this main thrust many feints were made, so that the enemy did not know where the heaviest blow would fall. During the first night there was a four-mile advance, and the salient was gradually widened and deepened until on the ninth day (November 2) a breach had been forced which enabled Montgomery's armour to pass through and meet the German tanks.

By nightfall of November 4 Rommel was in full retreat westwards. The British force which had now come to grips with his Panzers was in every way their equal; he abandoned thousands of his Italian allies, seizing their transport for the benefit of the Afrika Korps. That Korps' commander, Ritter von Thoma, was among the 9,000 prisoners taken by November 4. Soon the well-known place names reappeared in official communiqués: Sidi Barrani was retaken on November 10; Sollum and Bardia on the 12th; Tobruk and Gazala on the 13th. As they made their way along coastal roads jammed with vehicles the retreating Germans were continually bombed by our aircraft. In Parliament on November 11 Mr. Churchill declared that the Battle of Egypt was an historic British victory, and in order to celebrate it directions were being given to ring the church bells throughout the land on the following Sunday.

Benghazi was in British hands on November 20, though much had to be done before the port could be brought into use to ease the strain on our long and tenuous supply lines back to Egypt. By November 23 the Germans were at Jedabia, where they fought a fierce rearguard action before retreating to El Agheila, there to make a stand for three weeks. On December 14 Rommel continued his retreat, covered by rearguard forces which came within an ace of being intercepted and cut off at Wadi Matratin and Nofilia (see map in p. 2555). The Eighth Army occupied Sirte on Christmas Day; by December 27 Rommel had taken up positions along the Wadi Bei-el-Kebir, 40 miles west of Sirte, where our forces were in contact with him. The end of the year saw advance troops of the Eighth Army approximately 400 miles westward from Benghazi, and that port coming into use for supplies. No longer were the Eighth alone in North Africa, however, for on November 8 that American Army and "strong British contingent" to which Mr. Churchill referred had landed in Algeria and French Morocco.

North African Invasion

THE American and British forces which landed in Algeria and Morocco early on the morning of November 8, 1942, were under the supreme command of Lieut.-General Dwight D. Eisenhower. The points of attack were near Algiers, east and west of Oran, and Casablanca. Advance formations of the British First Army (Lt.-Gen. K. A. N. Anderson) landed near Algiers; their task, after a journey of 500 miles, was to push on into Tunisia. Anderson's force included two brigades of infantry of the 78th Division; a third brigade was landed at Bone on November 12 (our parachute troops having entered the town and captured the port earlier on the same day). Other British parachute units and commandos had taken Bougie on November 11; parachute troops alone seized the airfield at Souk-el-Arba and ensconced themselves in the hills north of Beja. For three weeks the Royal West Kents held Axis forces at the Djebel-Abiod Pass, under heavy bombing and tank attack most of the time.

French opposition to the Allied landings on November 8 varied in strength and degree. Naval and land forces at Oran made a strong resistance, but on November 10 the local commanders asked for an armistice. At Casablanca French warships opened fire, and a hot action went on until next day. At Algiers, on the evening of the 8th, there was a parley between British and French commanders which ended in our occupation of the whole region. Resistance elsewhere in

Algeria and French Morocco soon died down, mainly owing to the intervention of Admiral Darlan, who chanced to be in Algiers at the time. On November 11 he ordered all French troops to cease fire, and himself assumed authority in North Africa, in the name of Marshal Pétain. Next day he broadcast an appeal to the commanders of the French fleet at Toulon, asking them to bring their ships to Algiers. Meanwhile Pétain disavowed Darlan, and the Vichy Cabinet made a public declaration against General Henri-Honoré Giraud, who, after a secret journey in a submarine, had reached Algiers a short time before the Anglo-American forces landed.

Some months earlier preparations had been made for the campaign. A small number of American and British officers, at whose head was Eisenhower's deputy, Maj.-Gen. Mark Clark, had made their way by night to Algiers, where they landed from a submarine commanded by Lieut. N. L. A. Jewell—also commander of the submarine that picked up Giraud—for a secret conference with French officers in touch with Giraud and antagonistic to the Germans.

After consolidation of the Allied bases an advance was begun eastwards. But the invasion force was small and lacked transport; communications were poor. Meanwhile German armoured formations had been rushed to Tunisia from France, and other Axis troops were steadily reaching Bizerta and Tunis by air until a strong enemy force had been built up. The first clash came at a point roughly midway between Bizerta and Tunis, along the Medjerda river. British troops took Medjez-el-Bab and reached the outskirts of Tebourba on November 27, where a heavy counter-attack was made by Panzers. We penetrated into Djedeida, but our hold was precarious.

In the air the enemy was favoured by having good airfields near at hand in Sicily and in Tunis itself. On the 29th his dive-bombers became more active; Tebourba had to be evacuated (December 5). It was clear that the Axis forces were in too great strength to be dislodged by the methods used so far by the Allies. Strength would have to be built up for a more methodical campaign; communications improved, better and nearer airfields prepared; the supply and transport arrangements made adequate. Medjez-el-Bab was held, but our most advanced troops were withdrawn from their exposed positions. On Christmas Eve the Guards took some high ground six miles north-east of Medjez, but it was mostly recaptured by the enemy; on December 25 a renewed assault by Guards, French and American troops regained the hill-top which became known as "Longstop," but it was evacuated again on December 23.

Up to Christmas Day we had destroyed 277 enemy aircraft—128 shot down by the R.A.F.; 102 by the U.S.A.A.F.; 16 by A.A. gun-fire, and 21 at night. Allied losses for the same period were 114.

German Reactions to North African Blow

In combat with the Eighth Army Rommel had lost 75,000 men by casualties or capture (official British estimate of November 15). German panzer tactics had been crippled by the expulsion of the Afrika Korps from Egypt, so that hope of a success in the Caucasus, which at one time seemed likely, was bereft of its wider significance. First German reactions were spiteful rather than preventive: on Armistice Day (November 11) 1942 the occupation of all France began, and German troops soon reached the Spanish border. Italian troops occupied Corsica, entered Nice, Cannes and French Savoy. Only the Toulon region was spared, though German forces encircled the area. But the respite was not for long. On November 27, about 4 a.m., German aircraft mined the entrance to the port of Toulon and bombed some of the French forts. German tanks and infantry over-ran the docks and seized the arsenal. But the French Naval officers and men had made ready for such an attack, and on the orders of Admiral de Laborde most of the warships were scuttled—some even while their guns were firing to hold off the Germans until scuttling was completed. The old battleship "Provence," and the new ones "Strasbourg" and "Dunkerque," four heavy cruisers and three light, a score of destroyers and many submarines were thus irreparably destroyed, or damaged so much as to be put out of the war. (The new battleship "Jean Bart" had been bombed, set on fire and put out of action in the Allied attack on Oran, November 9, 1942.)

Air Tactics, Mediterranean and North Africa

The spectacular successes of the Desert Army in Libya were due in a considerable measure to the close collaboration of the Allied Air Force. Tactical and strategic forces were under separate commanders—Air Vice-Marshals Coningham and Slatter, respectively, with Air Chief Marshal Tedder as Air C.-in-C. A tightly knit organization made the air arm directly available to the C.-in-C. Middle East (General H. R. L. G. Alexander). But, more significant still, it became for the first time an "army of the air," functioning in harmony with the requirements of the land force commanders, with the primary duty of disorganizing the opposing army. Our air power was increased until, over North Africa, it was in a ratio of five to three against the enemy, but effective supremacy had to be fought for and was not merely a matter of numbers. Our fighters harassed Rommel's armies and wrecked his air bases. R.A.F. pilots of Malta-based squadrons attacked enemy convoys so vigorously that battleship escort had to be provided. At Malta, where Air Vice-Marshal H. P. Lloyd had relinquished his command to Air Vice-Marshal K. R. Park, the island's own supply position had been grave until a convoy from Gibraltar had fought its way through in June. Malta was an essential "fixed aircraft-carrier" where submarines and aircraft could refuel; the island's own bombers attacked Southern Italy, Sicily and Sardinia.

When the great forward surge began at El Alamein on October 23, 1942, the R.A.F. had already bombarded the enemy front-line positions for days; fighters and fighter-bombers then took up the task and kept enemy troops under cover. After Rommel's army broke and the long retreat westwards began, our Tactical Air Force ranged ahead of enemy columns and smashed Axis transport vehicles along the coastal road. With remarkable speed R.A.F. ground organizations mined airfields vacated by the Germans, repaired the damage done, and enabled our fighters to fly up to ever more advanced landing grounds and so maintain the air offensive in front of our advancing armour and infantry. A detailed account of these events is given in Chapter 246.

Cover for North African Landings

During three weeks, aircraft of Coastal Command flew more than a million miles to suppress the enemy submarines and air auxiliaries that might have attacked our transports *en route* to French North Africa. At the same time U.S. Army Air Force bombers attacked Italian ports whence enemy convoys for North Africa set out; aerodromes on Crete were also raided. Malta destroyed 138 enemy aircraft during the month of October. When, on November 8, the Allied invasion forces landed near Casablanca and at Algiers, and next day other formations landed in Algeria and at Philippeville, our aircraft were flown from carriers to occupied aerodromes ashore. Airborne troops were flown from Britain to Algeria, and thence to the neighbourhood of Oran for the attack on that stronghold, where stubborn resistance lasted for a day and a half. Fleet Air Arm machines bombed and gunned aerodromes. Other parachute troops from England took over the Maison Blanche airfield at Algiers on November 10; on the 12th they flew on to Bône aerodrome, which they successfully occupied.

Anderson's British First Army was now advancing eastwards towards Tunisia, and Allied parachute troops flew on ahead and dropped down to tackle German airborne troops which were rapidly seizing vital objectives such as the Bizerta and Tunis aerodromes. Twelve-ton tanks were landed by air by a German division, while enemy troop-carrying planes were shuttling to and fro across the Sicilian narrows with men and supplies, and Axis transport vessels brought more reinforcements. Anderson's force, when it reached Mateur and Tebourba, came under heavy and continued air attack from fighters and bombers operating from near-by bases. The nearest airfield available to the Allies was at Bône (120 miles from Bizerta and 130 from Tunis), so that our Spitfires were able to stay over the battle area no longer than a few minutes on each sortie. Though Lightning fighters, with a longer range, were brought in and helped to repel the enemy bombers, it became clear that little progress was possible until the Eighth Army had fought its way closer through Tripolitania and could provide adequate air cover for the First Army.

After Benghazi came into our hands on November 20, the strain on the long communication lines of the Eighth Army was somewhat eased. Air power concentrated against Jedabia drove out Rommel's forces, and the enemy retreated to El Agheila. Then followed a merciless attack by the R.A.F. upon a desert landing ground known as "Marble Arch," 40 miles behind Rommel's front; the Luftwaffe withdrew to Nofilia, 50 miles away, and left the retreating Afrika Korps at the mercy of the R.A.F. By December 18 Nofilia itself had been made untenable, as a result of that close synchronizing of air and land operations which was characteristic of this phase of the desert warfare.

Russian Arm of the Pincers

The end of December, while it saw the offensive in French North Africa stalled, found the Russian counter-offensive in full flood. The German summer offensive had broken through the Russian lines south of Kursk at the beginning of July 1942, and the enemy claimed that the breach was 200 miles wide. Except at Voronezh, which remained in Russian hands after a terrific battle lasting three weeks, the Soviet forces retreated north-eastward to the Don. On the Oskol their position had been turned, and Staryi Oskol had been lost. The German Kursk army wheeled south between the Oskol and the Don. In the eastern part of the Donets basin Soviet forces withdrew towards the lower Don and Rostov, and that important town and all others on the right bank of the Don had been evacuated by the end of July. Everywhere below Voronezh the enemy stood along the Don, and at the bend of that river German forces covered the approaches to

Stalingrad. A wide enemy bridgehead had been established on the east bank at Rostov.

Soviet forces had evacuated Sevastopol on July 1 (see Chapter 237 for an account of the final battles there). The fall of the great Crimean port released large German forces to take part in the drive to the Caucasus. Following on the loss of Proletarskaya (where the Stalingrad–Krasnodar railway crosses the Manych, a tributary of the Don on the east bank) and Bataisk, opposite Rostov, Marshal Timoshenko withdrew his army to the Caucasus foothills and the regions near the Azov coast (see map, p. 2267). Two main enemy thrusts developed—towards Krasnodar from Bataisk, and against the oil centre of Maikop, by way of Armavir (see relief map in p. 2425). In the first of these drives Tikhoretsk was taken on August 7, and though fighting still went on in that region, the Germans were outside Krasnodar by the 11th; after destroying the oil refineries there Soviet troops evacuated the place on August 19. Maikop had been evacuated three days earlier, but here again the oil installations were first destroyed, much of the equipment being got away to Tuapse—another oil centre on the coast of the Black Sea.

From Krasnodar the enemy pushed on towards Novorossisk, crossing the lower reaches of the Kuban river, taking Krimskaya on the 21st, and claiming to have entered Novorossisk on September 6; the Russians announced evacuation of the town on the 11th. In mid-October the Germans attacked Tuapse from Novorossisk and Maikop, but without success.

A German drive along the Rostov–Baku railway had reached Mineralnye Vodi by the middle of August, and for some weeks the enemy made frequent and desperate attempts to cross the Terek river at Mozdok. Then there followed a period with little change—as on the Novorossisk sector farther southwards. In October the enemy command seems to have diverted forces from the Stalingrad zone to quicken the Caucasus drive, and fighting flared up again along the Terek. Striking near Nalchik, then lightly held by Soviet troops, some success was gained at first by surprise tactics, and Nalchik fell; but early in November the staunch Russian resistance had brought the enemy offensive here to a standstill.

Siege of Stalingrad

The gravest of the German offensives was the siege of Stalingrad, on the lower Volga (see relief map in p. 2418). Stalingrad was defended by the 62nd Army, under Lieut.-Gen. Chuykov. At the end of July the Germans, who had pushed down the right bank of the Don, met with stubborn resistance at Kletskaya, but on August 11 they reached Kalach, on the south side of the Don elbow, completing their control of the Stalingrad–Rostov railway as far as the Don and providing a short route for their supplies. Much about this time the enemy also crossed the river at Tsimlyansk and got to Kotelnikovo, whence a formation moved westward to take Elista. A German army which had crossed the Don elbow attacked northeast to Stalingrad, and later the main fighting developed outside the city to the north-west. Twenty-five enemy infantry divisions and seven armoured divisions, with 1,000 aircraft, were engaged. In September the Kotelnikovo force was strengthened, and made a break-through with tanks from the south-west, and it was from this quarter that the greatest peril threatened Stalingrad.

Though the enemy had reached the outskirts of the city by mid-September, he had been fought to a standstill. With heavy commitments also in the Caucasus region the German command apparently had not the resources to quicken the pace at Stalingrad; towards the end of the month, also, a Soviet force between the Don and Volga began to make local attacks on German flank defences. After Hitler on September 30 had proclaimed that Stalingrad would be taken, his armies intensified the attack, using dive-bombers to try to conquer the workers' settlements and factories in the north-west extension of the city (see map in p. 2418). So tanks and field artillery, besides aircraft, were engaged in the desperate street-fighting which followed. These factories, solid and strongly built, formed good defensive positions, and their capture would have allowed the enemy to work through to the Volga and take Stalingrad's defences in the flank. But this attempt failed, even with all the weapons the Germans mustered; incessant Russian counter-attacks and dogged resistance frustrated the enemy here as elsewhere on the long Soviet front. The defenders were aided by a rainy spell and the mud which it brought. In the middle of October the Germans again attacked, using heavy concentrations of tanks and bombers; it was claimed that they had gained a foothold on the left bank of the Volga. But nothing further came of this success, if it were indeed true.

Stalingrad's Defenders Take the Offensive

The Russian force north of Stalingrad between the Don and Volga had been more active of late, but no hint had been given of the great blow that was now due to fall on the enemy, as a result of which Field-Marshal von Paulus's 6th Army was encircled and exterminated. (The names of the commanders on both sides are given in pp. 2420–21.) The manner in which the Soviet High Command prepared its plans and made its dispositions for the relief of Stalingrad is told in Chapter 252. On November 22 Moscow announced successful Red Army attacks north-west and south of Stalingrad, an advance of 46 miles, and the recapture of Kalach with immense booty; both railways leading to Stalingrad had been cut. Three days later the Army of the Don (Gen. Rokossovsky) joined hands with Chuykov's 62nd Army on the northern outskirts of Stalingrad. The army which had taken Kalach (Gen. Vatutin) made towards Kotelnikovo, but was checked.

The second phase of the relieving operations began with the crossing of the Don on a wide front at either side of Boguchar (December 19); on its left this Soviet army joined up with Rokossovsky's troops operating westwards from Kletskaya–Kalach against enemy forces in the Don loop. This forestalled any possible aid to Von Paulus by a counter-stroke along the railway north of the Don. To the south, however, the enemy made a bold attempt to succour the 6th Army: near Kotelnikovo, Von Manstein had gathered a powerful force under Von Hoth, and it endeavoured to break through towards Stalingrad. With armoured and motorized divisions, Von Hoth drove back the Russians some 30 miles, but Soviet troops opened an attack from a flank and, since the enemy had insufficient infantry to hold his corridor, the German break-through could not be exploited. The tide then turned, and by the end of the year Von Hoth was in full retreat, abandoning Kotelnikovo and pushing westward with Soviet troops at his heels.

It was clear that the Soviet armies had regained the initiative. On the central front at Rzhev Russian forces had broken through the German lines (November 25); another local success had followed a thrust east of Velikie Luki at the same time.

Air War Over Western Europe

While the forces of the United Nations in Africa were gathering strength for the crippling blows they later inflicted upon the Luftwaffe and the Wehrmacht in that theatre of war, Fighter and Bomber Commands of the Royal Air Force operating from Britain further developed the plan to cripple Germany's war output. Fighter Command had swung over to the offensive in the spring with systematic and continued attacks on enemy communications in Occupied territory. Locomotives and barges were shot up with cannon fire; operational range was extended, and the introduction of the four-bladed air-screw put the Spitfire of the day as far ahead of the crack German machine—the FW-190—as the Spitfire of 1941 had been in advance of the German Me-109. Then there was the fighter-bomber: Whirlwinds carrying bombs pressed home attacks on shipping from mast height.

Bomber Command had now plenty of four-engined aircraft; bombs were heavier, including a monster of 8,000 lb., and accuracy had improved. Saturation attacks, first exemplified by the raid on Lubeck of March 28, were continued. Then, again, daylight attacks were continued, following much the same method as in the classic raid by 12 Lancasters on Augsburg of April 17. Six months after this operation a force of 94 Lancasters flew in daylight to Le Creusot to bomb the Schneider works; all but one got back safely, shielded on the return journey by darkness. On July 11 other Lancasters had made a daylight attack on far-away Danzig; the target was the submarine slips there, but results were inconclusive. One more exploit should be chronicled—the attack on the Philips radio valve works at Eindhoven in Holland. Nearly a hundred unescorted light bombers took part, 12 failing to return. Raids on Italian towns by British-based bombers have been mentioned earlier; a day attack on Milan (October 24) was followed by a night assault.

Though mere figures of bomb-weight delivered are not a satisfactory criterion, they show broadly how the R.A.F. offensive was mounting. On Germany alone, by the end of 1942, 37,125 tons of bombs had been dropped by aircraft of Bomber Command; on enemy-occupied territory the figure was 5,322 tons. Taking Germany, Italy and enemy-occupied territory together, the total for 1942 was 45,285 tons, which may be compared with 31,185 tons dropped during 1941. These figures do not include the operations of other R.A.F. Commands, or of the United States Army Air Force. The latter, in combination with the R.A.F., attacked enemy airfields in Holland on July 4, 1942—Independence Day. Six of the 12 Boston bombers engaged had American crews and three of these were lost. American Bostons were frequently engaged after that, often with Spitfire escorts. On August 17 Flying Fortress bombers made an attack on the marshalling yards at Rouen, being led by Brigadier I. C. Eaker, commanding the 8th Bomber Command of the 8th U.S.A.A.F. in the European theatre of operations. Thereafter, in great numbers, Fortresses and other U.S. bombers with large escorts of fighters made many daylight attacks over the Continent within our fighter range. A brief mention of one such encounter may be given: on December 20 Fortress and Liberator bombers flew in daylight to attack the German airfield, aircraft park and repair factory at Romilly, 70 miles south-east of Paris. Of the large force of German fighters which tried to repel them, the big bombers destroyed 44; six of the American machines failed to return.

On the occasion of the "reconnaissance in force" at Dieppe, on August 19, 1942, near-by enemy airfields had to be attacked by Allied aircraft to prevent intervention over the battle area; the Abbeville aerodrome was bombed by American Fortresses escorted by R.A.F. fighters. Allied aircraft made more than 2,000 sorties and lost nearly a hundred planes during the Dieppe affray; but, as Mr. Churchill described it, it was "an extremely satisfactory air battle, which Fighter Command wish they could repeat every week." The Germans had been driven to rush in reserves of aircraft; our fighters are known to have destroyed 93 and it is probable that nearly twice this number were actually sent down.

"Rehearsal for Invasion"

THIS apt name was given to the Dieppe affray by Wallace Reyburn, a Canadian war correspondent who was present (see quotation from his published account, bearing the same title, in p. 2410). According to Col. J. L. Ralston, Canadian Minister of Defence, the objects of the raid were to give our forces "practical experience in the landing on an enemy-occupied coast . . . and the problems arising out of the employment in such a form of heavy armoured fighting vehicles." There were also tactical or local objectives in the Dieppe area. The raid was mainly a Canadian operation, the force consisting of personnel from two brigades of the 2nd Division, a battalion of the 1st Tank Brigade, and detachments of other Canadian arms and services. In addition three British Commandos were engaged; also Fighting French units and a small detachment of U.S. Rangers—a formation resembling the British Commando. The operation in all its chief aspects is described in Chapter 243 by Gordon Holman, who went with the force as an official war correspondent. The Canadian military commander was Maj.-Gen. J. H. Roberts; the Naval chief was Capt. J. Hughes Hallett, R.N.; Air Vice-Marshal T. Leigh-Mallory was in charge of air operations.

A mishap early in the morning of August 19 (3.47 a.m.) gave the enemy advance warning of our intentions and had serious effects on the entire enterprise. The left flank of the invading force (No. 3 Commando, which was to land at Berneval, 4 miles west from Dieppe, and seize the heavy coastal battery) ran into a small enemy convoy when seven miles from the French coast. There was a conflict, and No. 3's landing craft were scattered and many damaged. Two parties landed in broad daylight, 25 minutes later than the appointed time, to be met with a murderous fire from the enemy. On the right flank No. 4 Commando was given the task of silencing the coastal battery at Varengeville, five miles west from Dieppe. This battery and that at Berneval commanded the seaward approaches to Dieppe and the town itself. The success of the whole operation depended on their being put out of action, but at Berneval, as we have seen, this was not achieved. At 4.50 a.m. No. 4 Commando landed at the foot of the cliffs (see relief map in p. 2408), forced a way up to the top and waited for a low-level attack on the guns by our Spitfires. When this came the Commando men went forward with the bayonet; two officers who led the charge over 250 yards of open ground were killed. Capt. Porteous, though wounded in both thighs, took their place. The guns were captured and the enemy garrison wiped out. Porteous was later awarded the V.C. While this gallant action had been in progress, another party of No. 4 Commando had landed a little to the east at Vasterival, reached the cliff top, and opened fire on the enemy gunners with small arms; this they followed immediately with mortar fire. A mortar shell exploded the stack of ammunition beside the guns and ended their usefulness. No. 4 Commando withdrew in excellent order with four prisoners; they left behind them 11 of their number killed—two officers and nine other ranks.

At Puits, on the inner left flank, a detachment from the Royal Regt. of Canada met with a withering fire and was pinned down at the foot of the cliffs; eventually the men were withdrawn. The failure here was directly due to the delay of 20 minutes caused by the naval engagement which followed No. 3 Commando's encounter with the enemy convoy. So this part of the region was never cleared of the Germans, and the setback had a considerable effect upon the main landings—on the beaches fronting Dieppe itself. At Pourville, about as far to the west of the town as Puits was to the east, men of the South Saskatchewan Regt. went ashore; they fought their way inland to the bridge over the river Scie, where heavy mortar- and machine-gun fire held them up. Lt.-Col. C. C. I. Merritt, the regimental commander, came up and, seeing the cause of the hold-up, led the party across, twirling his steel helmet, which dangled at his wrist all the time. His inspired leadership that day won him the V.C. Six times in all he crossed the bridge under intense fire. He declined to be taken off later with his men, and went back to Pourville to get even with the Germans for what they had done to his regiment; he was afterwards reported a prisoner. Over the bridgehead secured by the Saskatchewans the Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders of Canada followed a little later; they drove inland two miles before the order came for withdrawal.

The frontal assault on the town, after a naval bombardment and a low-level attack by Spitfires firing cannon, was opened by the Essex Scottish and the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry. They came under heavy fire from the headlands east and west of the beaches. The Royal Hamiltons and the Royal Canadian Engineers stormed the Casino. Lance-Sgt. G. A. Hickson, of the Engineers, blew a way through the Casino walls, blasted open the steel door of a gun emplacement, and destroyed a six-inch gun which commanded the beach and the main Dieppe approach. Churchill tanks were landed, and some were brought up over the sea wall after Engineers had made a way for them. Little could be achieved by the Churchills; some made off westward to attack the defences on the headland there, while a few turned into the town, to find their way barred by heavy tank blocks. Heavy and concentrated fire was kept up all the time by the enemy. The Fusiliers Mont Royal were sent in from the floating reserve, and after them the Royal Marine Commando; few of the Marines got ashore, for when they emerged from the smoke screen put down to cover them they were met by intense fire. Seeing this, Lt.-Col. J. P. Phillips waved to the boats still on the way to turn back. Phillips himself was mortally wounded. The various units on shore fought on till the signal for withdrawal was given. Of the force engaged two-thirds were Canadians, and of their number—approximately 5,000—3,350 became casualties in one way or another. The enemy claimed to have taken 2,095 prisoners, of whom some six hundred were wounded men. Our naval casualties were very light; the only ship lost, besides some landing craft, was the destroyer "Berkeley" (904 tons), which was damaged and had to be sunk.

Six Months of the War at Sea

CONVOYS to North Russia ran to a regular time-table throughout the period, in spite of intense and persistent enemy attack by surface and underwater craft and by aircraft. Strong enemy forces were maintained at Norwegian naval bases. Russian activity contributed much to the joint Allied effort in northern waters, and a Soviet submarine torpedoed the German battleship "Tirpitz" on July 5, 1942 (see Chapter 241). The enemy had been out to intercept an Allied convoy, which was in fact attacked on July 2 between the North Cape and Spitsbergen. Berlin claimed to have sunk 32 out of 38 ships and an American cruiser; Moscow, however, stated that the bulk of the convoy had reached its destination. On September 12 a large convoy under Rear-Admiral E. K. Boddam-Wetham with an escort under Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett was attacked by enemy aircraft and "wolf-pack" submarines; the assault continued until the convoy made its Russian port. Losses were suffered, but the bulk of the ships got through. The escort then took over a homeward-bound convoy and ran the gauntlet once again—losing the destroyer "Somali" and a mine-sweeper. German ships came out to attack another convoy on December 31, 1942. Capt. R. St. V. Sherbrooke commanded the destroyers; he immediately went for the enemy force, seen to include a ten-thousand-ton pocket battleship and a cruiser, and repelled four attempts on the convoy. When heavier British warships came on the scene the enemy broke off the attack. H.M. destroyer "Onslow" was damaged, and the destroyer "Achates" was sunk, but the convoy got through unscathed. Capt. Sherbrooke was badly wounded; he was awarded the V.C. for his gallantry.

The North African landings required the use of 500 transports and an escort of 250 warships; of the three separate forces engaged one—entirely American—sailed from the U.S.A.; the other two—mixed British and American—sailed from Britain. Admiral Sir Andrew Cunningham was Naval C.-in-C. At Casablanca the French battleship "Jean Bart" went into action till set on fire and sunk. At Oran and Algiers strong boom defences had to be broken under heavy fire from shore batteries; the former U.S. coastguard cutters H.M.S. "Walney" and H.M.S. "Hartland" were lost in this operation, and at Algiers the British destroyers "Broke" and "Martin." Among Allied losses in addition were the Dutch destroyer "Isaac Sweers" (see page 2393), a corvette, a depot-ship, a sloop, an A.A. escort ship, and an auxiliary aircraft carrier—names in p. 2392. Dakar was not attacked, and its forces came over to the Allied side a little later, bringing useful warships and a quarter of a million tons of French shipping. At Dakar was the new French battleship "Richelieu," transferred uncompleted in June 1940; at the end of January 1943 she left Dakar for New York, reaching the American port early in February, and by the end of that year was in service with the Allied fleets.

Malta, Tobruk and Madagascar

THE plight of Malta—key position in the Mediterranean—was somewhat graver at the turn of the half-year; a big convoy of fast ships ran the blockade in mid-August, with an escort of 75 vessels comprising battleships, cruisers and destroyers, but only one aircraft carrier, H.M.S. "Eagle." She was sunk on August 11. Vice-Admiral E. N. Syfret was in command. Heavy losses were suffered, but enough ships got through

to assure the continuance of Malta's defence; H.M. cruiser "Cairo" and the destroyer "Foresight" were so badly mauled that they had to be sunk. For the story of the American tanker "Ohio," which brought high-octane motor spirit badly needed for Malta's aircraft, see p. 2388. Other convoys reached Malta later in the year and made the island safe for a long period.

On September 13 a big Commando raid was launched against Tobruk with the object of spoiling the port as an enemy supply base; a hitch in the timing marred the operation, and the planned landing place could not be reached (see p. 2388). H.M. destroyers "Zulu" and "Sikh" were lost.

The Navy played an invaluable part in Madagascar, where further operations to control the island were undertaken in September 1942; Mayotte Island, in the Mozambique Channel, had been occupied by British Commandos on July 0, as a measure to safeguard Allied convoys passing through *en route* to Persia and the Middle East; widespread landings were made on the west coast of Madagascar on September 10 by British, South African and East African troops under Gen. Sir W. Platt. Majunga and Morondava were occupied, and our columns advanced inland from the latter place towards Mahabo (see map in p. 2244). British troops already at Diego Suarez advanced simultaneously towards Ambanja and Vohemar. At Ankaloby a junction was effected with a column which had worked north from Majunga. More troops landed at Majunga, began an advance towards the capital, Tananarive, and secured the bridge over the Betsiboka river at Kamoro. Tananarive fell on September 13, and three days later the French Governor, M. Annet, opened negotiations for an armistice, which was signed on November 5. Meanwhile, hard battles had been fought at the Ivato cross-roads (October 19), and at Fianarantsoa (October 29). General Legentilhomme was appointed High Commissioner for Madagascar under the French National Committee in November; British military occupation continued until his arrival.

The War Against Japan

It will aid the reader in following the course of events over the wide area of conflict with Japan if he refers to the map in p. 2211. Japan had obtained a foothold in the Aleutians in June, occupying Attu, Agattu and Kiska. On August 8, U.S. warships bombarded Kiska, and next day the island was attacked by air. American bombers raided Kiska several times during September, and U.S. forces landed on islands of the Andreanof group of the Aleutians, setting up an air base from which to launch aircraft against Kiska and Attu. These raids became of almost daily frequency in October, and early that month another of the Andreanof islands was seized by U.S. forces.

Struggle for Guadalcanal

An offensive against the Japanese-held Solomon islands was begun on August 7, when a U.S. Marine division and shock troops seized Tulagi and two other small islands; also they secured a beachhead on Guadalcanal near a nearly completed enemy airfield. Their declared object was to protect supply lines to Australia. In a naval action next night two American cruisers and the Australian cruiser "Canberra" were sunk by a strong Japanese squadron. Whatever may have been the original intentions about this offensive, it quickly developed into a major contest with far-reaching effects. The detailed account printed in Chapter 250 is by a captain of the U.S. Marines engaged in the landings and subsequent operations.

From Rabaul and other Japanese bases in the north of the group enemy aircraft bombed the Marines, while the Americans were shelled by night from both surface and underwater craft. A fleet action (Battle of the Eastern Solomons) developed on August 24, the enemy losing an aircraft carrier thought to be the "Ryujo."

A strong Japanese force had landed on Guadalcanal and early in the morning of August 21 attacked with the object of retaking the airfield. By the evening most of the enemy had been killed; the raid had failed. Other landings were made at night from destroyers to east and west of the Marine lines, and the enemy built up another force for the assault; preluded by a naval bombardment, the new attack was made on September 13 by about 3,000 Japanese. They were driven off into the hills; other minor attacks at other points of the Marine perimeter similarly failed. The enemy now began to land artillery with which to shell the coveted airfield, but early in October several brilliant attacks by the Americans drove them back beyond light artillery range. The Japanese commander's next move was to smother the airfield and its defenders by a naval and air bombardment (October 13), so that an enemy convoy might get to Guadalcanal without serious risk from U.S. aircraft. There followed the naval action off Cape Esperance (October 12-15) where the Japanese force was intercepted and heavily punished, losing one heavy cruiser, four destroyers and a transport; one U.S. destroyer was sunk. American planes took up the pursuit next morning and sank a cruiser and a destroyer.

The battle had raged within sight of the beachhead, where U.S. infantry landed on October 13 to reinforce the Marines. A heavy air raid was made by the Japanese on Guadalcanal airfield, and that night it came under the fire of enemy six-inch guns beyond the range of U.S. light artillery. Early on the 14th a strong Japanese naval force bombarded the airfield; only seven American dive-bombers could be mustered to attack enemy transports making for a point 10 to 20 miles west of the Marines' beachhead. After another night of naval shelling only three of the dive-bombers were intact; two crashed in trying to take off from the crater-scarred surface, but the ground staff managed to repair 12 damaged aircraft and get them into the air later that day. Of the Japanese transports, three were sunk, or were grounded and on fire; two others had withdrawn after being damaged. Aircraft fuel for the American planes had almost run out, and small quantities were being flown in, or drained from wrecked planes on the ground. Naval bombardments continued nightly; the enemy force to the westward advanced towards the American positions, while other units moved eastwards to the Matanikau river (see map, p. 2486).

On the night of October 23-24 enemy tanks attacked across the river but were knocked out as they tried to cross the sand-bar at its mouth. The principal thrust came next night from the jungle south of the airfield; after four nights of bitter fighting the Americans' perimeter remained intact, however. A counter-thrust by the Marines (November 1) had the object of pushing back the Japanese beyond artillery range of the airfield, but it turned out that the enemy were preparing for an even bigger assault. As on earlier occasions a big naval battle took place, that of Santa Cruz (November 13-15). In this three-day fight 28 Japanese warships were sunk; American losses were two cruisers and seven destroyers. Almost all the enemy forces were destroyed before reaching Guadalcanal; four supply ships which got to the shore were sunk by aircraft and artillery fire.

After this last desperate attempt to conquer the airfield the Japanese offensives grew weaker. U.S. Army reinforcements came in steadily, until there had been built up sufficient strength to expel the enemy from Guadalcanal. An American offensive in the middle of January led to a major battle on January 25, 1943. On February 9 Tokyo announced the evacuation of Guadalcanal. Mr. Hanson W. Baldwin (Foreign Affairs, Vol. XXI, No. 2) has expressed the opinion that the U.S. offensive in the Solomons was intended to relieve Russian Siberia of a threatened Japanese attack across the Amur river against Vladivostok.

New Guinea and the Threat to Australia

A Japanese force of about 2,000 landed in Milne Bay, at the south-east end of New Guinea, on August 26. Engaged by Australian troops well provided with air support, the invaders gained no ground. Japanese warships entered the bay on the night of the 29th and took off a number; the rest were mopped up by Australians in the following days. Meanwhile, a Japanese force advancing from Gona had forced the "Gap" in the Owen Stanley range. The enemy had landed at Gona on July 21, and some ten days later had occupied Kokoda, key position to control of the range. Allied troops, outnumbered, fell back and the Gap was open for the enemy. By September 16 the Japanese reached the Ioribaiwa range, less than 40 miles by air from Port Moresby. Here the Allies' defence line held firm, and time was gained to build up a force at Port Moresby for a counter-offensive. Reinforcements (including American troops) were poured in, and on September 29 the Allied attack began. The Ioribaiwa ridge was cleared of the enemy in a fortnight, though there a thousand Japanese had been posted to fight to the death. Kokoda was again in Allied hands on November 2; the Japanese were steadily driven back to Gona, retaken on December 9 (see map in p. 2471). Buna was taken on January 2, after a junction between Australians and U.S. troops, the latter flown from Port Moresby. (The full story of the fighting in New Guinea is told in Chapter 249.)

Situation in Burma

Japanese policy in conquered Burma was governed mainly by enemy hopes of its effects upon India. A quisling administration was set up in August 1942 under Ba Maw, a former premier who had been imprisoned in 1940 for treason. Indians were assured, over the enemy radio, that Japan wished them also to "achieve their long cherished independence." In August, too, the survivors of the Chinese Fifth Army (cut off from escape into Yunnan when Mandalay and Bhamo had fallen) made their way from Burma into Assam, where they were rearmed and reorganized under American leadership. Japanese aircraft attacked American airfields near the Indian border at the end of October, and after some weeks' lull again raided these objectives during December. R.A.F. and U.S.A.A.F. bombers bombed targets at Rangoon, Lashio, Mandalay and elsewhere in Burma. On December 19 it was announced that a mixed British and Indian force had advanced into Arakan in Lower Burma, and occupied the Maungdaw-Buthidaung area, 60 miles north of Akyab. One of the Allied objectives was an airfield at Akyab, and on the 27th our advance units encountered the enemy at Rathedaung, about halfway to Akyab,

The Allied column reached the Chindwin valley on the 27th, and two days later there was fighting east and west of the Mayu river near Rathedaung. Meanwhile, on the night of December 20, Japanese aircraft bombed Calcutta; four other raids were made during the eight days following. Chittagong was attacked eight times by enemy aircraft during the month.

The Indian Deadlock

JAPAN'S political and propagandist manoeuvres in Burma, and the latent threat to India, did not fail to impress malcontents across the border. Gandhi with his unrealistic and even fantastic pronouncements swayed large multitudes and bewildered as many more. Then, too, there was the Muslim League, led by Jinnah, now loudly urging its claim for a separate Muslim state. Jinnah was no more willing than Gandhi to take up any positive attitude which would further Indian unity. At the session of the All-India Congress held at Bombay on August 7 a resolution was passed calling for a mass movement of "non-violence." The reply of the Government was to arrest Gandhi and his chief associates. Jinnah, who could have given a lead towards collaboration, swung over to a stiffer attitude and reiterated his demands for a separate Muslim-controlled state, embracing those areas where his co-religionists were in the majority.

End of Extra-Territoriality in China

TOWARDS the end of 1942 the British and U.S. Governments opened discussions with the Chinese Government for the immediate abrogation of their extra-territorial rights. Treaties relinquishing these rights were signed in January 1943 and ratified in May. A British Parliamentary Mission visited Chungking in November 1942 at the invitation of Chiang Kai-shek. Japanese military operations in China were inconclusive, though a large enemy body advanced against the Chinese in the Yunnan mountains during November and drove back the defenders. China's own Air Force had been strengthened by aid from India, and the U.S. Tenth Air Force was widening its range and growing in numbers. Enemy-held places as far apart as Hongkong, Canton, Yochow, Hankow and Tientsin, besides objectives on the Burma border, were attacked by American bombers.

The American War Effort

THE global strategy of the United Nations necessitated a holding down of Japan while steadily increasing pressure was exerted upon Germany—the enemy in the West. United States soldiers, sailors and airmen played a vital part in many of the operations against Germany and her satellites. American infantry transported by air to New Guinea aided Australians in rounding up the retreating Japanese in November and December 1942. In day raids from British bases, Fortress and Liberator bombers made sweeps over German-occupied France and the Low Countries. A big force of all arms was built up in India, and under Maj.-Gen. Lewis Brereton the Ninth U.S. Army Air Force had been organized in Egypt in time to take a decisive part in the repulse of Rommel, and in his later defeat. Then there came the large-scale American operations, in collaboration with British forces, for the invasion of North Africa (November 8), which has been described in an earlier section. The U.S. Army Air Force in China (reorganized from the volunteer airmen who had served under Maj.-Gen. Claire Chennault), which issued its first communiqué on July 6, rendered considerable aid to Chiang Kai-shek's troops.

By the end of 1942 it could be said that the United States was fully mobilized: arms factories, tank and vehicle works, aircraft factories and the great establishments turning out big ordnance were getting into swing on that gigantic programme which was to yield such a swelling volume of weapons that in another year output of some types had to be scaled down. There had been two great operations which marked the swing of strategy from defensive to offensive—Guadalcanal and the landings in Africa. The target of eight million tons of new merchant shipping was exceeded; at the end of the year three cargo ships per day were coming out of the yards; 48,000 aircraft had been built and turned over to the Services; ten million Americans were directly engaged in war production industries.

The Congressional Elections early in November showed a swing towards the Republican Party, which won 44 additional seats in the House of Representatives and nine in the Senate, besides securing Governorships in 27 out of 48 States. Democrat majorities in both Representatives and Senate were reduced, so that the President's party lost effective control; but energetic prosecution of the war was not affected. (See Chapter 251 for a close analysis of American Home Affairs during the period.)

Britain's Home Front

MR. CHURCHILL returned to England on August 24; in three weeks' absence he had visited Egypt, had gone on then to Moscow for talks with Premier Stalin, and had broken the return journey for another week's stay in Egypt. Mr. Churchill told the story of his mission when Parliament opened on September 8 after the recess. He spoke of Soviet Russia's "inexorable resolve" to fight Hitlerism to the end, and affirmed his belief that "in the British Empire, the United States and the Soviet Union Hitler has forged an alliance of partnership which is strong enough to beat him to the ground and steadfast enough to persevere not only until his wickedness has been punished, but until some at least of the ruin he has wrought has been repaired." On the day after Mr. Churchill's return the nation was horrified to learn of the death of H.R.H. the Duke of Kent, killed in a flying accident in Scotland in the course of his duties; out of 15 persons in the Sunderland flying boat when it crashed into a hillside only one survived.

In November there were several changes in the Government. Sir Stafford Cripps ceased to be Lord Privy Seal to become Minister of Aircraft Production. His place in the War Cabinet was taken by Mr. Herbert Morrison (Home Secretary and Minister of Home Security), Mr. Eden (Foreign Secretary) became Leader of the House, while Lord Cranborne, Leader of the House of Lords, vacated the Secretaryship for the Colonies to become Lord Privy Seal. Colonel Oliver Stanley was appointed Colonial Secretary. On the last day of the year other changes were made public: Mr. Harold Macmillan (Under-Secretary for Colonies) was appointed Minister Resident at Allied H.Q., North Africa, and was given Cabinet rank; Mr. W. S. Morrison (Postmaster-General) became Minister for Town and Country Planning, a Ministry yet to be created. Sir William Jowitt (Paymaster-General) became Minister without Portfolio; he had been concerned with post-war reconstruction, and was to continue these duties.

Wide Plans for Social Services

ON December 2 the Government published the "Beveridge Report"; Sir William Beveridge (Master of University College, Oxford) had been asked by the Government in June 1941 to examine existing schemes of social insurance and workmen's compensation, etc., and to submit recommendations for the improvement and co-ordination of these schemes. (The report is summarized in p. 2380.) Sir William Beveridge proposed the setting up of a compulsory all-in insurance scheme to provide pensions, disability benefits, payment during unemployment, medical treatment, maternity benefits and funeral payments. He recommended the setting up of a Ministry of Social Security, under which administration of the social services would be unified. The reports of the Barlow, Scott, and Uthwatt Committees on other aspects of post-war reconstruction are summarized in pp. 2370-71. Another question which gave rise to much discussion was the replanning of the many areas laid waste by enemy bombing and the consequent demolition and clearing. The Planning Committee of the Royal Academy, of which the late Sir Edwin Lutyens was Chairman and Sir Charles Bressey Vice-Chairman, had published its plans for London. The Scott Report (Land Utilization in Rural Areas) was issued in August; the Uthwatt Committee on Compensation and Betterment published its Final Report in September.

Fewer Air Attacks on Britain

SWIFT and short attacks by fighters or fighter-bombers on southern coastal towns by daylight were countered by providing more batteries of small-calibre A.A. guns, constantly manned, at all places in the menaced regions. Soon these raids proved too expensive to the enemy, and they virtually ceased, but on September 29 Petworth in Sussex was bombed, with heavy loss of life at a school. There were some sharp night raids also, on towns in the Midlands, East Anglia and on the north-east and west coasts. Civilian casualties during the six months amounted to:

	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Killed	421	403	187	223	24	107
Injured	471	509	238	379	33	208

Totals: Killed 1,391; Injured 2,224

A bomb was dropped on a London suburb on July 7—after the first daylight alert for more than twelve months. Three weeks later, outer London was raided at night, and Birmingham also suffered. Further violent attacks on Birmingham and other Midland towns followed, but the enemy force was not more than 60 to 70 in each case, and of these about 10 per cent were shot down with some consistency during the period. Greater London was attacked again on the night of August 12.

It was announced on November 12 that since the outbreak of war two and three-quarter million houses had been damaged by enemy air attack in England and Wales; of these, all but a quarter of a million had been repaired and were then occupied. Of the rest, 150,000 had been totally destroyed. Towards the end of November certain changes were announced in the R.A.F. Commands: Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder became Chief of Air Staff. In his stead Air Chief Marshal Sir W. Sholto Douglas became A.O.C.-in-C. Great Britain, and was followed as A.O.C. Fighter Command by Air Marshal T. W. Leigh-Mallory.



Photo: Fighting French Official

JULY 14, 1942, IN THE RUE DE LA REPUBLIQUE, LYONS

General de Gaulle, leader of the Free French Movement (which changed its name to La France Combattante—Fighting France—on July 14, 1942), called on the people of the cities of unoccupied France to observe this anniversary of France's national day by holding disciplined demonstrations between 6 and 7 p.m. There was a great demonstration in Marseilles, where three men and a woman were shot; and in Lyons thousands of people marched through the streets watched by thousands more from the pavements. This photograph, taken between 6.50 and 6.55, shows a thin line of French police standing in the path of the demonstrators across the Rue de la République, Lyons



POLISH ARTILLERY GOES INTO BATTLE ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT

Heavy guns given by the U.S.S.R. to the First Polish Tadeusz Kosciusko Division moving up in support of Polish infantry. In April 1942 there were three Polish divisions in Russia, three in Persia, and one in Libya in addition to the Polish forces in Great Britain. General Sikorski stated in August 1942 that the Polish Army was the fifth largest of the Allied armies. It included two armoured and motorized corps—one with the army in Britain, and one in the Middle East. The Polish air force was then twice as strong as at the outbreak of war; and the Polish navy was also greater—a third greater, it was announced in February 1943.

Photo, Pictorial Press